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Recommendations Made by the Commission of Inquiry into National Policy in International Economic Relations*

I. THE GENERAL OBJECTIVE OF AMERICAN INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC POLICY

In order to advance the recovery of the world, the United States must promote the interchange of goods and services among nations. We believe that this policy is indispensable to the recovery and development of the United States.

The American government must labor to maintain peace. It should do everything in its power to remove impediments to world trade. It should by action as rapid and dramatic as possible endeavor to reverse the trend toward economic isolation. Otherwise it must be prepared to accept a drastic dislocation and reorganization of industry and agriculture, of capital and labor.

The principal difficulty in the way of admitting additional imports into this country is the 10,000,000 unemployed in the United States. Although an increase in imports might increase this number temporarily, some tariffs could be lowered without throwing people out of work; others are ineffective. Whatever the effect on the volume of new imports, the influence of removing or lowering these barriers on the trade policies of other governments and hence on the ultimate revival of world trade would be substantial. A bolder policy could accompany an ascending scale of national recovery.

Many nations now feel that they must try to become self-sufficient because of the danger of war. Although the United States cannot engage to guarantee the security of any nation or group of nations, the measures herewith recommended would do much to contribute to a sense of political security throughout the world.

II. POLITICAL MEASURES

International economic relations cannot be greatly improved until the distrust and tension now prevailing in the world are relieved.

Therefore we recommend that our government adopt the following measures:

1. Continued participation in the Disarmament Conference, coöperation with the League of Nations in such of its activities as cannot involve us in Euro-

* The Commission was proposed by the Social Science Research Council. After the idea had received wide approval by a large group of leaders including governmental officials, a subvention was granted by the Rockefeller Foundation at the request of the Social Science Research Council, which also selected the personnel of the Commission. Hearings, in which many leaders in all lines of activity participated, were held in eight of the largest cities in different sections of the United States; the Commission also received counsel and assistance from a group of experts in different fields. The Report was made public on November 25th.—The Editors.

pean conflicts, and adherence to the World Court. We commend the recent action of Congress in adhering to the Arms Convention and in joining the International Labor Organization. We urge it to make the necessary appropriations for the latter without delay.

2. Continuance of present policy in South America and the Caribbean as exemplified by the Montevideo Conference, the repeal of the Platt Amendment and the withdrawal of troops from Haiti.

3. Immediate withdrawal from the Philippines on terms that will protect their economic life from injury by American tariffs.

4. Placing of Oriental immigration on a non-discriminatory basis.

5. Repeal of the Johnson Act forbidding loans to countries in default.

6. Immediate settlement of the war debts. We do not believe that the interests of the United States require any payment. Since, however, some countries desire to pay something, we recommend the appointment of a commission with full power to effect settlements. We suggest a lump-sum payment, possibly to be effected through the transfer of securities to be obtained by foreign governments through the exchange of their bonds for American issues held by their nationals or by any other method that minimizes transfer difficulties. The proposed commission should have discretion to accept in part settlement defaulted obligations of political units of the United States.

7. We recommend that our government make it clear that future investments abroad are at the investor's risk. We point out the possibilities of friction involved in even the customary diplomatic representations as to foreign investments. The investor should be remitted for assistance or redress to the authorities of the country where the investment is made.

III. ECONOMIC MEASURES

To achieve a more wholesome balance in the international accounts of the United States we recommend that our government take the following measures:

1. *The Tariff*

a. The removal of tariffs in all cases in which no serious addition to unemployment would result. Among such tariffs are:

- (1) Tariffs on noncompetitive products.
- (2) Ineffective rates.
- (3) Tariffs exclusively for revenue.
- (4) Tariffs on goods of which we import almost all our domestic consumption.
- (5) Tariffs on goods requiring types of craftsmanship not developed in the United States.
- (6) Tariffs on certain minerals of which the United States has scanty supplies or which have been overextended in submarginal production areas.
- (7) Seasonally, those on seasonal imports.

- b. If these measures do not prove adequate to increase imports to the necessary degree, rates on other commodities should be lowered, with the proviso that the increases in the volume of goods admitted be subject to control in order to minimize the danger of unemployment. It is desirable in the interest of internal law and order and international trade to restore tariff and internal revenue rates for imported beer, wines and spirits to the levels of the Underwood Tariff of 1913.
- c. We recommend that the government consider the payment, under proper safeguards, of a dismissal wage to labor thrown out of employment as a direct consequence of sudden changes in the tariff.
- d. We favor the speedy negotiation of reciprocal trade agreements pending downward revision of the tariff. We do not regard reciprocal trade agreements as a substitute for tariff revision, because the Trade Agreements Act limits reductions to only 50 per cent of existing rates and only cases where other countries reciprocate. We recommend the conclusion of such agreements only on condition that they be used to enlarge rather than divert world trade. We suggest an arrangement under which most-favored-nation treatment would be accorded all countries that make such agreements with us.

2. *Agricultural Policy*

The commission recognizes the present necessity for fundamental readjustments in American agriculture and feels that the policies now being applied by the Department of Agriculture should be continued long enough to determine their practical value.

- a. We recommend the continuation of subsidies such as those provided under the present domestic allotment program as supplements to agricultural tariffs which are likely to be ineffective. The commission suggests subsidies only in this restricted sense and only to compensate agriculture for the effects of existing industrial tariffs.
- b. Since any attempt to raise American agricultural prices, without differentiation between domestic and world prices, will stimulate foreign production to the detriment of the farmer's export market, all price-raising measures of this character should be discontinued at the earliest possible moment.
- c. We recommend further that all other measures tending to restrict exports, such as the cotton loan policy, be abandoned at the earliest possible moment. Such policies not only tend to restrict exports by maintaining an artificially high price for American cotton but may also make necessary severe reductions in cotton production in this country in order to protect the loan extended by the government.

3. *Foreign Investments*

- a. We are opposed to governmental restrictions on long-term private loans abroad beyond such regulations as are necessary to prevent fraud. We re-

gard foreign lending by the United States Government itself as unwise.

- b. We recommend that arrangements be made to make available currently complete information as to the volume of international short-term lending.
- c. We recommend that no steps be taken by the government to restrict the operation or establishment of American branch factories abroad.

4. *Monetary Policy*

- a. We recommend that gold stocks be used exclusively as at present for the balancing of international payments.
- b. We recommend that in order to promote confidence the government announce that, although it will retain its present powers under the Gold Purchase Act to change the price of gold within the limits there stated, it does not intend to exercise those powers and that it will freely permit the export of gold at the present official price for the settlement of international payments.
- c. We believe that there is only a minor relationship between the official prices of gold or silver and the general price level, and that the correspondence between commodity prices and the official prices of these metals is substantial only for those commodities which move importantly in international trade. The government may enlarge purchasing power through maintaining for a time a large Federal deficit, which may be created by reducing taxes as well as by increasing expenditures. Such a deficit for emergency purposes need not threaten our financial structure if accompanied by sound policies for increasing production and employment.

IV. ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES

1. *The Tariff*

- a. We recommend that Congress confer upon the Tariff Commission the power to change tariff rates, subject to Congressional veto, according to the principle of the amendment to the Hawley-Smoot Tariff Act proposed in 1930 but rejected. The Tariff Commission would then fix rates according to such principles as Congress might establish, and the new rates would take effect in sixty days unless rejected by joint resolution of Congress.
- b. We recommend that if the powers of the Tariff Commission be enlarged as herein proposed, the powers granted the President for three years to negotiate reciprocal trade agreements be allowed to lapse, unless the emergency continues.
- c. We recommend that if the life of the National Industrial Recovery Act is extended, its tariff-making features (Section 3e) be repealed and power over all tariffs transferred to the Tariff Commission.

2. *Coördination*

The coördination of international economic policy requires the exchange between governmental departments, clearance with the State Department of pro-

posed actions affecting foreign trade and coöperative planning by the proper departments. Therefore we recommend:

- a. The present interdepartmental Executive Committee on Commercial Policy should be given an adequate staff.
- b. There should be provided as a part of the permanent organization of the Department of State an additional Assistant Secretary of State and a division chief to clear information on actions affecting foreign economic relations and to formulate coöperative plans in this field. The Assistant Secretary should be chairman of the Executive Committee on Commercial Policy.
- c. Each branch of Congress should establish a liaison committee to coördinate legislation affecting international economic relations.

ROBERT M. HUTCHINS, Chairman;
WM. TUDOR GARDNER, Vice Chairman;
CARL L. ALSBERG,
ISAIAH BOWMAN,
GUY STANTON FORD,
BEARDSLEY RUMI,
ALFRED H. STONE.

Unitary History and Its Possibilities*

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"Hundreds of experiments alleged to be original and new are now going on in the United States," writes Henry Johnson in his recent volume.¹ And then continuing in a way which delights many social-studies people and confounds others, he adds: "That they are original with their sponsors may be granted, but it might be useful to test their newness. If, as may appear, some of our most advanced reformers are at best busy catching up with the eighteenth century, that condition might invite useful reflection." Had Professor Johnson been writing with particular reference to unitary organization of history, he would probably have been justified in substituting the seventeenth century for the eighteenth in the above quotation. If one be not too literal, it would appear that unitary history is about as new as the seventeenth century. It was in 1632 that Comenius, a German educational reformer, completed his *Great Didactic*, in which he proposed a twelve-year program in history. The program of the Latin School for selected boys between the ages of twelve and eighteen embraced the following histories in successive years: (1) Epitome of Bible History, (2) Natural History, (3) History of Arts and Inventions, (4) History of Morals, (5) History of the Customs of Different Peoples, and (6) General History of the World and Especially of the Pupils' Own Country.²

Thus in a very broad way, it would seem that Comenius had formulated something akin to the unit system, although, of course, he did not so term it. Incidentally, it will be observed that "social history" is given considerable emphasis. Bearing in mind that what may be called the concept of unitary history is almost as old as the colony of New Netherland, reformers of the social studies who ballyhoo their way into educational headlines should proceed with reasonable caution. In any case the label is relatively unimportant; the concept is the thing.

WHAT IS UNITARY ORGANIZATION?

However distasteful definitions may be, the question demands an answer. Since a multiplicity of definitions, with their fine shadings, merely makes for confusion, we can do no better than to turn to Henry C. Morrison's wording as found in his well-known presentation in 1926. A unit, he writes, "must be a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment . . . capable of being understood rather than capable merely of being remembered."³ Applying the definition spe-

* Paper presented at the Social Studies Section of the New York State Teachers' Association, Schenectady, October 26, 1934.

¹ *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools*, pp. 5-6. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1932.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 31-32.

³ *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 182. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926.

cifically to history, we are told that the unit must be interpreted as an "intelligible evolutionary process."

Without quibbling intent, what may be a fair interpretation of the meaning of these words; or, to put it another way, what are the concepts underlying a learning unit in history? As I understand this definition, it may fairly and reasonably be implied that a unit in history comprehends (1) an *evolutionary* movement in history which is comprehensive in nature and significant and vital to social development; and (2) the elements comprising the unit, together with whatever principles, trends, and generalizations should be incorporated in the presentation, are important from the point of view of the learner because he sees a whole and presumably, therefore, will better understand the whole. The trees of man's long evolving environment become, it is hoped, a forest which is seen, understood, and appreciated.

To be more concrete, a good example of an evolutionary movement in American history, which is comprehensive in nature and significant and vital to social development, is "The Industrialization of America." Comprehended in such a unit is not only the rise of the Industrial Revolution but its many ramifications and their far-reaching effects upon society. Thus before the evolutionary process is completed, the unit will conceivably include not only the growth of big business, inclusive of our transportation methods and systems, but its ultimate regulation and even the probable passing of rugged individualism. Nor can the comprehensive presentation of industrialization be ended without including the flow and ebb of the immigrant tide, the inevitable consolidation of labor, and the relationship of the farmer to the industrial hierarchy—each of these elements, moreover, greatly complicated by the ups and downs of the prosperity curve. And, of course, the long battles over banking, currency, and the tariffs must find their places in this vast economic and industrial mosaic. The mere mention of these interrelated elements suggests many of the principles and generalizations that must be insistently woven into the predetermined pattern, a design in history carefully planned to facilitate the learning process. Without attempting to exhaust the list, there readily comes to mind: the far-reaching influences of geography upon history, the basic concept of *laissez-faire*, the development of mass production, the cycles of prosperity and depression, the economic law of supply and demand, the advance of the frontier, economic imperialism, the long existing hostility between rural and urban groups, and, by way of summary, the question whether man or the machine is master.

It must be apparent that unitary organization in history is something quite different from the topical organization. And it must be equally apparent that no amount of sleight of hand tactics—certainly not mere typographical maneuvering—will convert a topical organization into a unit organization. For those teachers who would fortify themselves against the pseudo unit in the field of history I suggest the reading of an article on unitary history, written by H. C. Hill and R.

B. Weaver.* Before finally leaving the Morrisonian definition of a unit, it may be advisable to point out that the unitary organization of subject matter on the one hand and the method or methods of teaching the unitary organization on the other hand are two distinct concepts. Under the Morrisonian plan the method of presentation is known as the "mastery formula" of teach, test, reteach and retest, with provisions for five specific steps. In my opinion, this particular mechanical procedure is not necessarily related to the unitary organization of history; certainly the unitary presentation of history is not dependent upon the so-called "mastery formula" for its successful use.

THE BROOKLINE EXPERIMENT

How many senior high school teachers have given thought to the right to boredom, if not rebellion, with which eleventh and twelfth-grade pupils may, and in many cases do, approach another year in American history? In many of our school systems, if not in those familiar to you, American history is presented for a third time at the senior high school level. In these systems American history appears in grades III to V inclusive, and in some instances with a factual emphasis that defies understanding; then again the gamut from Columbus to Roosevelt is covered in either grade VII or VIII or both; and finally, as required by statute in most of the states, a third exposure is made in grade XI or grade XII, frequently accompanied with a dose of government. And to rub the wounds with salt—for such they are in the cases of the more intelligent pupils—it sometimes happens that the textbook used in the senior high school is not so strong educationally as the one previously in hand in the junior high school. Teachers familiar with the presentations on the three levels are too often compelled to admit that the primary differences between elementary, junior high, and senior high school American history go little beyond the addition of detail. Here then is a practical problem facing every teacher of American history. What should be done about a triple repetition of a chronological survey of American history, consuming as it does in many systems six of the twelve years of social studies? Or rather what should be done in so far as it lies within a teacher's power to do anything, for we must grant that for the present, at least, the teacher is powerless to change the cycle system? Under the circumstances, what can be your answer to a high school boy about to enter your American history class, who may be bold enough to say, frankly and not too defiantly, "This is old stuff; why should I be interested in it?"

It was a consideration of the larger problem involved in these questions that led us in Brookline to seek a way out. Without a compass previously found reliable but with a faith in the theoretical advantages of what came to be known as the unit organization, we proceeded eight years ago to the task of organizing senior high school American history upon a unitary basis. Our procedure was simple yet systematic, but perhaps not "scientific" as that word has lately come to be bandied about in certain quarters. The Director of Social Studies, who was himself

*"A Unitary Course in United States History for the Junior High School." *The School Review*, XXXVII (April, 1929), 256-266.

an instructor in American history in the senior high school, assumed leadership by suggesting six major units with approximate time schedules for each and by suggesting in very general terms the major elements in each unit. In addition, it was suggested (1) that elements whenever possible be psychologically significant in their wording and development; (2) that special precaution be taken to preserve the chronological sense to whatever extent possible and by whatever useful means; (3) that as soon as possible a mimeographed outline of the units be prepared for pupil use and guidance; and (4) that careful records be made of (a) the textual material by pages as used for each element, (b) special references used, (c) special problems, exercises and investigations suggested for pupil use whether individual or group, together with examples resulting from pupil effort, (d) tests whether new type or essay type, and (e) the time allotments in days or weeks for each element of a unit.

The experimental work was to be conducted in all the non-college divisions, totaling each year 150 to 175 pupils. From the point of view of the Director one of the most important factors in the evolution of this unitary organization was the independence of the individual teachers participating. We were honestly attempting to find a workable unitary organization, and within the minimum limits suggested each teacher was encouraged to go his own way. There is no denying that we had cut out quite a job for ourselves, nor did we underestimate the burden that was entailed. However, the need for action was so great and the major problem so compelling that we set heartily to work. At one time or another five teachers—all of considerable experience and of advanced training—participated, and I cannot too unreservedly praise the constructive work of these teachers. Nor can I overemphasize the fact that the final product was the work of classroom teachers and not the theoretical *ex cathedra* of a curriculum director.

As we proceeded our individual ways, we evolved something of a technique. Frequent conferences, of course, were held and the major problems as they developed were given tentative solutions, always with understandings to try this or that and watch for results. To shorten the story at this particular point, the experimental development of our unit organization resolved itself into this procedure: (1) at the close of the first year it was agreed that each teacher would continue his individual way another year but refine his product in the light of our common problems and with the hope of reducing somewhat any marked divergences of emphasis that existed; (2) at the beginning of the third year an attempt was made to arrive at a composite organization which, however, was understood to be tentative; (3) again for two years, with a decreasing number of conferences, each teacher was to use the tentative composite organization, refining and adjusting it to his own standards in the light of our individual experiences; (4) with the beginning of the fifth year it was decided that each teacher then engaged in the work should assume responsibility for still further refining specific units which would tentatively at least be more or less suggestive to the other teachers and their pupils. The teacher responsible for a given unit or units was expected to convince his col-

leagues through conferences of the worth of his outline and his point of view. At this point, then, mimeographed outlines began to take on some form of finality. Incidentally, at this stage experience had pretty definitely set the time allotment for each element of the units. The final step in the procedure was taken when these composite outlines were further adjusted in the light of course of study requirements.

PROBLEMS AND POSSIBILITIES

The unit organization finally resulting, together with the time allotments in weeks, follows:

<i>Unit</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Weeks</i>
I	America—A Part of the British Empire	3½
II	The Growth of Democracy in America	12½
III	The Industrialization of America	7
IV	Cultural and Social America	3
V	America as a World Power	5
VI	Today's Problems for Americans	3

Expressed somewhat graphically, the first unit, "America—A Part of the British Empire" is the broad base upon which our national history rests, and rising vertically from this base from left to right as great columns are units II, III, IV, and V, "The Growth of Democracy in America," "The Industrialization of America," "Cultural and Social America," and "America as a World Power," presenting respectively the "evolutionary process" of our political, economic, and social life, and our world relations, all from their national origins to their recent development. At the top and bringing the four previous units together in something of an integrated historical whole as it affects society in the present is the final unit, "Today's Problems for Americans."

In theory and in practice, unitary organization of history is simple and logical; perhaps one might say "unillogical." History, when presented in orthodox chronological fashion is, I submit, extraordinarily complex and inevitably becomes, as we all know, episodic, because frequently events—be they political, economic, social or foreign relations—cannot nicely dovetail. At any rate, they do not, too often, adjust themselves to a learning pattern, and less, of course, to a whole which can be understood. The unit organization, properly organized, simplifies history for the learning process by tracing in more or less chronological sequence one major evolutionary process at a time. Thus the pupil is permitted to understand and to acquire, to the extent that high school pupils are capable, one evolutionary process after another as they logically develop. Incidentally, teachers, as well as pupils, who have the burden of College Board or Regent examinations on their shoulders, will appreciate this advantage as the tendency toward evolutionary questions increases. To revert to our particular unit organization in Brookline, some units, we find, follow a vertical or distinctly evolutionary set-up, while one—the cultural and social unit—presents cross-sectional views within the limits set by the unit.

Naturally, problems arose as the experiment proceeded. Some of the major ones probably appear to be rather obvious to those of you who have thought seriously about unitary organization of history, and to others of you certain problems may occur as being insurmountable. Obvious ones there were, but none proved in any sense insurmountable. Perhaps the most obvious one is that of chronology which, after all, is not so serious as upon first thought it would seem to be. I think that most of us have no real illusions about the development of a pupil sense of time sequence under the orthodox chronological organization of history. In and by itself such organization did not guarantee the acquisition of a chronological sense on the part of pupils. Unless fortified by drill, time lines, charts, and similar exercises, we know that the old organization too frequently failed us in instilling in pupils a sense of time sequence. Perhaps the extraordinarily complex nature of the strictly chronological account defeated one of its major purposes. However that may be, unitary organization must prepare itself against what is alleged to be its greatest weakness.

In defense of our Brookline organization we point to the fact that the first unit is strictly chronological and that subsequent units follow rather faithfully a chronological sequence; certainly each unit is evolutionary in its purpose. The long political unit gives a complete survey of our national political life, and if a time sense is not there developed by the pupil, it may be extremely doubtful if any form of organization in itself will do it. Mindful of the difficulty of the problem, we depend not wholly on this nor on the evolutionary nature of subsequent units. We take advantage of every possible opportunity for cross references in the pupil's reading and make full use of time charts and tabular summaries as devices for visualizing history in cross section.

Another major problem is that of the inclusion and omission of subject matter. What should be included and in which unit (or units) should a given element appear? What should be omitted? This may be as important as what should be included. Most of us, in all probability, are agreed that the outworn practice of including everything in encyclopedic fashion is fortunately passing out, and if unitary organization of history is clearly understood no tears will be shed on that score. The major problem of where to include certain elements will probably always be one on which there will be a difference of opinion, but this is by no means a grievous matter. The basic question should be: Is the unit, however organized, a serviceable learning unit? If that fundamental fact is kept clearly in mind, usable learning units can be evolved in history. In general, to answer the question where given elements should find their place, our practice was to include them where we believed they logically belonged, but we endeavored to give as complete treatment as possible at the earliest logical point. Of course, there will be some slight division and apparent overlapping and there will be need and desire for cross reference, but no teacher of experience will be either alarmed or disturbed at such practice. As a matter of fact, every good teacher—whatever organization he uses—has always done just that sort of thing, for he knows

full well that such procedure is one factor in successful history teaching. Good teaching, as well as good textbook writing, requires some repetition from the point of view of the learner. Approaching certain important elements of history—be they events, principles or generalizations—from, let us say, four *different* angles or settings, may be nothing more nor less than purposeful repetition, fully justified and necessitated if the learning process is kept in mind.

If as the needs of the time demand, the economic and social phases of our history are to be given their legitimate but belated place in our courses of study, some subject matter now holding sway must yield space. If, furthermore, more than one-third of a course is to be devoted to economic and social history and if approximately 50 per cent is to be given over to the period since the Civil War, as is true in the Brookline unitary organization, the period of discovery, exploration and settlement must yield ground. Likewise the monopoly conferred in the past upon narrow political history must give way to more sensible proportions, and wars, particularly in their military treatment, must receive less emphasis; which is not to suggest, however, that they should be omitted. Admitting that whatever the organization of a course of study, economic and social history must be introduced in measurable amounts, the question arises as to what will happen if it is simply sandwiched into the existing orthodox chronological organizations. Does it not seem that if the orthodoxy is to be preserved, a treatment already highly complex may well become unmanageable?

One other major question arises, perhaps. Will the unit organization work? Do pupils respond to it, or do they prefer the orthodox chronological presentation? Despite the handicaps under which we labored during the experiment, both teachers and pupils were enthusiastically in favor of the unit plan. Several years ago while still without adequate textbook materials for our purposes, an unsigned pupil questionnaire at the close of the year indicated that more than 80 per cent of the pupils favored the unitary organization as against the orthodox organization they had previously known. Whether the proof of the pudding is in the eating or in the effects of the eating, the unitary organization of American history has always enjoyed a preferred status among our pupils. From my experience with the organization, I should say that there does not seem to be any justification for believing that unitary history is something advanced in nature and therefore for select groups only.

Unitary history is emphatically not a panacea. It is an honest and sincere attempt on the part of many—and many of these only after considerable experiment—to evolve an organization that will simplify for the learner the complexities of history, that will leave the learner with some understanding of the great evolutionary processes that have made us as we are and that, not among the least, will give to our high-school people after repeated exposures to American history a truly different approach—a New Deal, if you wish.

Another Chapter on Tests for the Volume of "Conclusions and Recommendations"

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In October, 1933, the Commission on Social Studies met at Chicago to consider a preliminary draft of the volume on *Conclusions and Recommendations*. Because the chapter on tests was felt by some members of the Commission to be inadequate, Dr. Truman Kelley and Dr. Ernest Horn were requested to form a subcommittee, with Dr. Horn as chairman, to make an alternate statement. This alternate statement was planned in a conference attended by Dr. Truman Kelley, of Harvard University, Dr. Ben Wood, of Columbia University, Dr. E. F. Lindquist, of the University of Iowa, and the chairman. The chairman also held individual conferences with Dr. G. M. Ruch, of the University of California, Dr. George Works, of the University of Chicago, Dr. George Stoddard, director of the Child Welfare Station, University of Iowa, and Dr. Frank Ballou, chairman of the Commission's standing committee on tests. The report was written by Dr. Lindquist and the chairman. It was approved by all the members of the subcommittee with the exception of Truman L. Kelley, who requested to be reported as approving it in the main, although believing that there are certain rather serious omissions in it. Dr. Kelley's own statement appears in the Commission's volume, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Studies*. It was also read and approved by Dr. George Works, Dr. George Stoddard, and Dr. Frank Ballou.

A copy of this report was sent to each member of the Commission, with the recommendation that it be substituted for the chapter which had been presented at the Chicago meeting. At the suggestion of the chairman of the subcommittee, this recommendation was not put to a vote at the December meeting of the Commission, because it was hoped that the modifications suggested in the report could be incorporated in the final manuscript of the summary volume. Since, however, many of the recommendations which the subcommittee felt to be most important were not so incorporated, it seems appropriate to print its report in full and without alteration. It should be kept in mind that this report attempts to present a compromise statement. Its style, which is that of the first draft of the volume on *Conclusions and Recommendations*, would not have been chosen had the subcommittee prepared the report for independent publication.

I. TESTING

1. All consciously directed learning implies some form of appraisal.
2. While appraisal is intimately related to learning, it requires a separate focus of attention and frequently must be considered as a definite and separate process.
3. Appraisal may focus upon the attainment of the ultimate objectives of edu-

cation; upon the attainment of the approximate goals which constitute the course of study; upon the relationship between the approximate and ultimate objectives; upon the effectiveness of methods of instruction; or upon the abilities and disabilities of the learner.

4. It may be concerned chiefly with the immediate facilitation of learning on the part of the pupils who are subjected to appraisal, or it may be concerned primarily with the improvement of knowledge about part or all of the processes of instruction.

5. Appraisal ranges, in form or type from naive and vaguely formulated approval or disapproval to the use of technical devices of great complexity.

6. In all instruction, from the induction ceremonies of the primitive tribe to the granting of the most advanced academic degree, appraisal tends to become formal, arbitrary, and unrelated to the more vital purposes of education.

7. These tendencies are soon in all types of appraisal: in the judgments of teachers, in the essay examination, and in the newer "objective" test. They are not, however, peculiar to appraisal; they are found in all aspects of instruction.

8. Because of its fundamental importance, when validly related to the most significant purposes of instruction, appraisal should be as reliable or dependable as possible.

II. HISTORICAL RESUME OF THE OBJECTIVE TESTING MOVEMENT

1. The early years of the twentieth century were marked by a rapidly growing realization of the inadequacies and shortcomings of current methods of appraisal of the results of instruction.

2. Since early in the second decade, large amounts of data have been accumulated showing conclusively that personal and subjective evaluations of educational performance (or of ability and aptitude), particularly on the basis of the traditional essay examination, are highly inconsistent, unreliable and lacking in comparability.

3. Efforts to secure more dependable evaluations of the educational product led to the appearance and development of certain new types of tests, now commonly referred to as "objective" tests.

4. These new types of tests met almost immediately with a widespread and enthusiastic acceptance, particularly at the elementary and secondary levels of education. A vast literature on testing has accumulated during the last twenty years; departments for developing the theory and practice of testing have been established in colleges and universities; school systems have been surveyed by means of these new tests; research departments devoted primarily to testing became associated with city school systems; and an enormous amount of energy and talent has gone into the movement.

5. While the rapid rise of this testing or measuring movement was due primarily to the existing dissatisfaction with and demonstrated variability and incomparability of the current or traditional methods of appraisal, it was no doubt

greatly stimulated by, and in part due to, the great popularity and prestige of the natural sciences; to the sustained effort on the part of a number of able and vigorous young men trained in experimental psychology and educational measurement to introduce the use of scientific methods into the study of educational problems; to the growth of city school systems of great complexity demanding new forms of administration; and to the borrowing by school men of ideas of control and efficiency from large business enterprises.

6. In the early stages of enthusiastic and uncritical acceptance of these new types of tests, many claims were made for them that have thus far proved impossible of fulfillment, many ill-considered and unfortunate applications were made of them, and many erroneous interpretations were placed upon the results. In this respect, our experience with the objective testing movement has only paralleled the history of nearly all other technical contributions to civilization.

7. In the public schools particularly, much pressure was brought to bear upon teachers and administrators to hasten the introduction of objective testing methods. Teachers were frequently encouraged, and often even ordered, to discard the essay examination entirely and to begin building and using objective examinations immediately, with complete disregard of the fact that few, if any, teachers were at that time trained to use these new techniques effectively and intelligently.

8. As a consequence of this premature development, the great majority of the early objective examinations were of decidedly poor quality, and in many instances were doubtless inferior to the essay examinations which they displaced. These early objective tests were full of technical imperfections; they reflected and perhaps exaggerated the current tendencies in teaching toward overemphasis on verbal learning of isolated and poorly selected descriptive information (a defect which they shared with the traditional essay examination of the time); they failed, also in common with the essay examination, to measure the less tangible and perhaps most important outcomes of instruction; and in many instances they undoubtedly exercised an unfortunate reciprocal influence upon the content and methods of instruction and upon learning procedures.

9. This rapid growth of the objective testing movement, particularly in its premature and ill-considered aspects, has fortunately been checked and to some extent reversed by second thought and more critical appraisal in recent years. The definite limitations of these newer testing techniques, as well as of other methods of appraisal, are coming to be more fully understood and more widely recognized. A more equitable share of emphasis and attention is being given to other methods of appraisal and to their improvement. Reputable workers in the field of objective testing now not only allow but insist upon the use and attempted improvement of all methods of appraisal—objective, subjective, personal, and indirect. The artificial distinction between "old" and "new" types of tests is being broken down, and the whole program of appraisal is being viewed in its entirety, with no attempt to rely exclusively upon any single type of technique.

10. The objective testing movement, then, is at present entering upon a

period of slower but much more certain and significant growth. Objective testing techniques do have great possibilities for extended usefulness, and it is unfortunate that indiscriminating and prejudiced opposition is seriously retarding their further development.

11. From the standpoint of the work of the Commission, these new testing instruments have assumed three significant forms: the tests of general intelligence and of special aptitude, tests of personality traits, and the tests of school achievement—all to be considered in relation to the purposes and results of instruction in the social sciences.

III

1. The concept of individual differences is very old, but the extent, nature, and significance of these differences have been made more apparent in recent years by the development and use of the various tests of intelligence, aptitude, and achievement.

2. It is inevitable and desirable that teachers of social science should be concerned with the nature and extent of the abilities and aptitudes of their pupils. It seems appropriate, therefore, to examine into the ways in which differences in these abilities may be ascertained as well as into the implications of such differences and disabilities as may be disclosed.

3. Social science instruction has been and probably will continue to be primarily rational and intellectual. It is predominantly concerned with such manifestations of intelligence as understanding and thinking.

4. The social scientist cannot escape the necessity, therefore, of appraising tests which purport to measure intelligence. He recognizes, however, not only that the term is somewhat vague in common usage but that psychologists themselves differ widely as to its nature and significance. The social scientist is interested in the validity and reliability with which intelligence tests measure the kind of intelligence which is required in the study of social problems. He is also concerned with the various proposed applications of these tests.

5. There is a positive but low correlation between intelligence and measured achievement in social studies. This may mean that intelligence tests do not measure the kinds of intelligence that are required in the study of social problems; that students are given only limited opportunities to use their intelligence under current methods of teaching; or that achievement tests have measured only in part the results of intelligent effort. Each of these explanations seems to contain a large germ of truth.

6. The weight of the evidence, nevertheless, favors the acceptance of the intelligence test as one device for measuring, both in experimental and practical situations, certain capacities and abilities which condition to some extent learning, adjustment, and effective citizenship.

7. Although many aspects of intelligence tests are highly controversial, even among those most expert in their construction and use, the majority of those familiar with the use of intelligence tests agree that their ratings are reliable at

the extremes; i.e., they do detect children who are feeble-minded, or nearly so, as well as children of very unusual intelligence.

8. There are certain limitations and criticisms which recur in the technical literature or mental testing: first, the movement is still in a formative stage, both in the construction and in the use of such tests; second, mental ability is still erroneously ascribed too exclusively to inherited or other determinant forces; third, misconceptions are still common concerning the degree to which intelligence, as measured by tests, enters into achievement; fourth, it is becoming increasingly evident, although not yet admitted by some mental test workers, that the prognosis of scholarly achievement may be better accomplished by special aptitude and achievement tests which concentrate on defined areas of subject matter; fifth, it is too often forgotten that there are areas of personality and social achievement in which the ingredients are not limited to intelligence, however defined or measured. Such factors as emotional stability, social interests, and aesthetic development rise to increasing importance in the life of the child as he goes from a relatively sheltered school life to meet the complex demands of society.

9. In spite of admitted deficiencies of intelligence tests and their permanent unfitness to represent the whole life of the individual, it is nevertheless true that thus far no single device can so successfully, in a short period, tell as much about the mental status and probable scholastic development of the individual child. Therefore, the Commission, while unable to endorse *carte blanche* the mental testing program with its many errors and defects, believes that with a refinement of technique and with vigorous internal criticism mental testing will make an important, although limited, contribution to social education.

10. It seems established beyond controversy that individuals whose scores on existing tests of intelligence and aptitude fall below minimum levels are almost sure to be frustrated in their endeavors to achieve success in certain educational and vocational endeavors. In the early discovery of such persons these tests render a substantial service, both to the individual and to society.

11. The Commission would point out emphatically, however, that intelligence and aptitude tests are chiefly descriptive and definitive rather than normative in character. While the results obtained from them do condition educational and social policies, these policies must in general be primarily determined on other grounds.

12. One cannot conclude, for example, that because large differences in intelligence and aptitude exist, students should, for purposes of instruction, be sectioned on the basis of such differences. Sectioning is but one of the feasible methods of adjustment. The decision as to its adoption or rejection must be based upon the effect upon the student, the size of the student population, and social policy. It is now generally recognized that it is better to base all adjustments, including sectioning, upon measures of special aptitude and achievement than upon measures of general intelligence.

13. The use of such tests in educational counseling and vocational guidance is similarly limited. Again intelligence, as measured by existing tests, is but one of the many factors which condition educational adjustment or vocational guidance. The results are of great significance only at extremely low levels, and even at these levels constitute only one of the bases upon which educational or social policies are determined.

14. In view of the fact that intelligence tests have limited validity and reliability; that they represent but one of the factors which condition policies; and that these policies are determined chiefly on other grounds, the Commission urges the greatest caution in their use in setting up such policies.

IV

1. The efforts that have been made to secure objective and quantitative descriptions or measures of personality and character traits, such as honesty, leadership, coöperation, good citizenship, will, and temperament, have thus far not advanced beyond the exploratory or experimental stage. No specific tests of such traits have thus far been produced of sufficient practical significance or meaningfulness to warrant their use in the practical school situation.

2. Those traits, which constitute some of the most important characteristics with which teachers have to deal, are at present very unreliably appraised either by average tests or by the judgments of teachers. In the absence of a more adequate description and appraisal of these traits, the school cannot proceed confidently in building a program for their development. Accordingly, efforts directed toward the better description and evaluation of these traits are of prime importance and should be welcome even though they are only partially successful and not immediately productive of significant results.

3. Any attempt to define or measure the attitudes, ideals, and modes of behavior that are suggested by such terms as open-mindedness, sympathy, coöperation, honesty, tolerance immediately involves the social studies.

4. While it may be convenient for purposes of general discussion to speak of attitudes, ideals, and modes of behavior in such broad generalized terms, any such description cannot constitute a workable basis for the purpose either of teaching or of test construction. Any generalized attitude must be considered merely a collection of related specific attitudes grouped with reference to a convenient collective term. These specific attitudes must be described and measured separately if the descriptions or measures are to be meaningful.

5. It is not the sole responsibility of the social studies to develop all of the specific attitudes, ideals, and modes of behavior implied in such general terms as honesty, coöperation, sympathy, and tolerance.

6. The social studies are distinctively concerned with a number of social institutions, problems, and practices toward many of which it is possible, if considered desirable, to develop emotionalized attitudes on the part of the pupils.

7. At the present time there is no general agreement as to what emotionalized

attitudes, if any, should be developed toward social problems through instruction in the social studies. Neither is there now available (even from those who favor this type of indoctrination) any comprehensive or authoritative description of the specific situations or types of situations in or toward which attitudes should be developed.

8. In the absence of any authoritative description of the specific situations in which attitudes may exist and be measured, and in the absence of any agreement upon what constitutes the socially desirable attitude in each situation, any attempt to construct attitude tests for use in the evaluation of instruction in the social studies will proceed only under very serious handicaps.

9. Some progress has been made in the construction of attitude "scales," which have proved useful in describing group attitudes or changes in attitude toward social problems and institutions. These scales, however, are to be considered as instruments for the *description* rather than for the *evaluation* of the attitudes "measured." Their nature, furthermore, is such that they cannot be safely used in a test situation in which any incentive is given to the testee to conceal his true attitude.

V

1. The adequate appraisal of achievement involves the well-balanced use of a variety of techniques: oral questioning; the written examination, both essay and objective; various forms of written reports; and the observation of other forms of pupil behavior.

2. All forms of the written examination, as well as all other methods used by the teacher in the immediate appraisal of the results of teaching, are largely limited to the measurement of the attainment of *immediate* objectives. Ultimate objectives can be measured directly during the course of instruction only to the degree that they can be immediately attained. In the final analysis, the ultimate testing of the program of social science instruction is not conducted by the teachers in the schools but rather by the responses to social situations throughout life and by the course of social events in which the pupil so instructed later participates.

3. In the practical school situation most problems call for immediate decisions in advance of this delayed ultimate evaluation. Entirely aside from the question of whether or not the immediate objectives now generally accepted will lead to the desired ultimate results, there is a clear need for measurement of the extent to which these immediate objectives have been attained.

4. To the degree that the immediate objectives are valid and will, if attained, result in the attainment of the ultimate objectives, any direct measure of the former is of course an indirect measure of the latter type of objective. In relation to the ultimate objectives, therefore, the validity of written examinations of any type depends finally upon the validity of the immediate objectives upon which they are based.

5. The most important single consideration in the whole problem of measurement in the social studies is the meaningful and authoritative description of the

immediate objectives of instruction and of the specific instructional materials which are assumed to contribute to these and to the ultimate objectives.

6. The most serious obstacle now confronting the constructor of achievement tests (regardless of the type of test employed) is the absence of any definition or description of the immediate objectives and of the content of the social studies in a form sufficiently specific, explicit, meaningful, and authoritative to serve as a useful and reliable guide in test construction. Only to the degree that these objectives and content are clearly apprehended can the classroom teacher and the test technician produce satisfactory tests of achievement.

7. Because of the relatively vague, ambiguous, and subjective nature of traditional examination procedures, the acuteness of the need for such definitions and descriptions in test construction did not become clearly apparent until the appearance of tests of the objective type.

8. The responsibility for the preparation and provision of definitions and descriptions of this character clearly belongs primarily to the social scientists rather than to the classroom teacher or test technician.

9. Because of the intimate relation of appraisal to teaching, the major share of the responsibility for the construction and use of achievement tests, especially those for day-by-day use, must be assumed by the classroom teacher. The most intelligent and effective use of any testing technique, but particularly those of the objective type, calls for a degree of technical skill and thorough understanding of subject matter which can be acquired by the teacher only through specific technical and professional training.

10. In the hands of teachers not thus trained and equipped, the objective examination, in common with other methods of appraisal, may exercise and often has exercised an undesirable and damaging influence upon learning procedures.

11. In addition to the examinations constructed by the teacher for informal classroom use, there is a definite need, particularly at the elementary and secondary school levels, for more carefully constructed and more refined tests for which norms for achievement have been established for large groups of pupils and schools. Such tests will provide a valuable check on the teacher's own appraisals and will make possible valuable comparisons with what is being achieved in other schools.

12. In the interpretation of the results of such standardized survey tests, two things should be kept in mind: First, that any given test measures only a part—frequently a minor part—of the total results of instruction. Second, that relative performance on the test is a function of a large number of factors, of which effectiveness of immediate instruction is only one. Great caution should be employed, therefore, in the use of these tests in the evaluation of instruction.

13. From the point of view of this Commission, all types of tests—including the new objective test—should be judged, not in terms of past accomplishment nor in terms of their misuse by incompetent persons, but in terms of the best of their present accomplishments and their future possibilities. It is clearly

important, however, to recognize the perils involved in the testing procedures and practices now prevalent and to guard most carefully against the unfortunate consequences not only of the use of poorly constructed tests of any type but also of the improper application and erroneous interpretation of even the best tests.

14. The majority of objective examinations used in the past have exhibited a number of shortcomings and undesirable characteristics. They have been almost entirely limited to testing for verbal acquisition of isolated items of descriptive information, often poorly selected; they have contained many technical imperfections which have enabled the pupils to respond correctly on irrelevant bases and with only a superficial understanding of the subject matter tested; their emphasis on verbal association has perhaps encouraged reliance on verbalism rather than upon thought, and has probably led to the acquisition of words rather than to growth of understanding; they have rarely succeeded in measuring the higher thought processes; and their use, directly or indirectly, in the rating and promotion of teachers has often encouraged the latter to concentrate on the mechanical aspects of learning.

15. There is no evidence, however, that these defects are peculiarly characteristic of objective tests. Appraisal on the basis of oral questioning, the essay examination, or teacher observance of other forms of behavior have manifested many of the same faults and inadequacies.

16. Neither is there any evidence that these specific defects and unfortunate consequences are inevitably or inherently bound up with the objective testing technique as such or with any other forms of appraisal. The unmistakable improvements which have been made in all forms of test techniques indicate that we have not even approximated the limits of their improvement and usefulness.

17. The development of a reasoned understanding of information relevant to significant problems, the discovery of meanings, and the recognition of relationships and implications are essential to the attainment of both the immediate and the ultimate objectives of social science instruction. It is in measuring attainments of this type that the new-type test has made its most significant contribution. The discriminating use of properly constructed tests will do much to counteract and eliminate verbalism in instruction.

18. A few of the objective achievement tests now being produced are relatively free from technical imperfections, tend to penalize rather than place a premium upon rote learning and superficial understanding, and place increased emphasis upon reasoned understanding of relatively broad concepts, ideas, relationships and generalizations, rather than upon the merely verbal acquisition of isolated items of descriptive information.

19. In measuring certain of the rational and intellectual achievements of pupils, the objective examination is demonstrably superior to the traditional examination procedures (including the essay test and the oral question) in the scope or extensiveness of the sampling permitted; in the *comparability* of results from pupil to pupil, from class to class, and from school to school; for the

establishment of meaningful norms of achievement for large groups of pupils and schools; in objectivity of marking; in reliability of obtained results; in the ease and speed with which it can be given and scored, and in the facility with which it may be employed in large classes, large schools, and large educational systems.

20. In the appraisal of the student's ability to do sustained thinking, to discover, select, and organize ideas and information on a broad scale, and to express these organized ideas in an effective fashion, the written report and the essay examination seem to contain potentialities not approached by those of present tests of the objective type.

21. These possibilities of the written report and of the essay examination have thus far been only partially and only very inadequately achieved in actual practice.

22. There is a very real danger, where an extreme reliance is placed upon tests of the objective type, that the students will be allowed to go to college or into life without ever having been called upon to put forth continuous, constructive effort in sustained *thinking* or *writing* about history, political science, economics, and sociology. Entirely aside from its measurement possibilities, the oral discussion and the essay exercise should be retained and given an important place in teaching and learning procedures.

23. It is a reasonable assumption, borne out by experience, that whatever is emphasized in appraisal is also emphasized in instruction and that as a consequence, any overemphasis in appraisal will result in a corresponding imbalance in instruction. The Commission recommends, therefore, that tests, and all other forms of appraisal, be kept strictly subordinated to the fundamental purposes of instruction. Tests should be the servant and not the master.

Tests in the Social Studies

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The measurement movement has made rapid strides in the last twenty-five years and is now attracting wide attention in all fields of education. The adequacy of a testing program depends upon its relation to the accepted aims of instruction and we must of necessity deal with highly definite materials and with immediate, rather than ultimate, objectives. In the social studies, little progress has been achieved in determining the aims of instruction beyond the statement of general objectives. This is particularly true in regard to the attitudes, habits, appreciations, and generalizations to which the social studies are expected to contribute. Because of this difficulty and the fact that reliable testing techniques have not yet been developed for the measurement of all of the desired results of social-studies teaching, there are very definite limitations on the testing program in this field.

The major purposes served by tests and examinations are: 1. The measurement of accomplishment for the purpose of assigning marks; 2. motivation of the learning process; 3. training in language usage; 4. the provision of learning exercises; 5. to allow diagnosis of special abilities and weaknesses of individual students; 6. to allow prognosis of future success or lack of it; and, 7. to allow teachers to determine the success of their efforts and to guide re-teaching and review.

Measurement of accomplishment, which is essential with our present system of marks, demands that adequate tests be administered. It should be noted that pupils derive their real impressions of the teacher's objectives from the type of tests given and therefore care should be taken to avoid giving the wrong concept by testing only information of the course and ignoring such items as the skills involved in social-studies work.

MID-TERM EXAMINATION IN INDUSTRIAL HISTORY¹

Directions: Place in Miss ——'s box in the office before 2:30 on April ——, a report on the subject assigned you, written in ink, or typewritten. This report must contain:

1. A list of books which is useful for the subject, the title and the author of the book to be given in each case.
2. Notes on the subject taken from one or more of these books, title of the book and pages consulted to head each set of notes.
3. A two-page discussion of assigned topic.
4. At the close of the paper, write and sign the following statement:
"I have received no help in the preparation of this report."

The above test illustrates this point. I regard this test as an excellent example of the possibility of testing methods of work and the inclination to use indices, tables of contents, encyclopedias, atlases, bibliographies, etc. In marking this test,

¹ Tryon, R. M., *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*, p. 158. New York: Ginn & Co., 1921.

thirty per cent was allowed for the list of books, thirty per cent for notes (considering facts obtained and intelligence with which notes were taken), and forty per cent for the discussion. You will note that this test is almost entirely devoted to measuring students' knowledge of the skills essential to study of the social sciences and the ability to apply them.

When pupils have confidence in the tests and when the major emphasis is not placed upon grades, the taking of tests usually proves to be a real motivating exercise. The making of charts and graphs of their performance stimulates greater effort, and experimental psychology repeatedly has demonstrated that study with knowledge of results is more productive than in cases where the learner is kept in ignorance of success and failure. In this connection, it should be noted that studies indicate that students achieve more pleasure from taking a new type test than the more traditional essay type.

There is considerable controversy over the amount of training in language usage derived from the taking of tests. Certainly, to serve this purpose, the essay test is far more desirable than new type tests. Opponents argue that the conditions of writing examinations are not favorable to the use of good English. It can be contended, however, that for proper transfer of training in the use of English language, writing under pressure in another field is desirable and therefore this purpose may be filled by examinations. There is little question that where essay examinations are used, ample time should be allowed and the answers should be carefully judged on the matter of expression, as well as on the subject matter presented.

The interest of students in taking examinations provides an opportunity for valuable learning exercises which cannot be ignored. An example in point is a course in Vocational Problems, where it is my experience that more learning and understanding has been achieved through the medium of tests than any other type of exercise. The learning activity is of two types: (a) actual information gained from the test itself; and (b) guiding the pupil as to particular points of emphasis, etc.

The primary purpose of tests must be to measure the ability of students to interpret and apply information gained. The majority of our tests measures the ability to recall certain words, phrases, names, events, or places which have been memorized, and does not measure the understanding of and ability to use the individual items of information which have been taught.

TYPE A²

Directions: Match each event with the proper date.

- | | |
|---|---------|
| (2) 1. The Sherman Anti-Trust Act. | 1. 1876 |
| | 2. 1890 |
| (5) 2. Washington Disarmament Conference. | 3. 1905 |
| | 4. 1914 |
| (4) 3. Opening of the Panama Canal. | 5. 1922 |

² Anderson, H. R., "The Every-Pupil Tests in the Social Studies," supplement to University of Iowa Bulletin, New Series no. 716 (December 2, 1933), p. 3.

TYPE B

Directions: In the following exercise, an historical event is described or suggested by each of the statements in the left-hand column. Match each statement with the time period in the right-hand column in which the event occurred.

- | | |
|--|--------------|
| (2) 1. A federal statute <i>was passed</i> which | 1. 1876-1885 |
| later became the basis for a suit to | 2. 1886-1895 |
| dissolve a merger of the Great Northern, | 3. 1896-1905 |
| the Northern Pacific, and the Chicago, | 4. 1906-1915 |
| Burlington and Quincy railroads. | 5. 1916-1925 |
| (5) 2. At an international conference, the United States secretary | |
| of state proposed that the building of first-class battleships be | |
| discontinued for ten years. | |
| (4) 3. The completion of a great engineering project reduced, by | |
| about two-thirds, the distance by boat from New York to San | |
| Francisco. | |

Above you will note that two forms of a best answer item are presented. Type A is a straight test of factual information. Type B has all the virtues of Type A and, in addition, requires the pupil to relate each event to other events and calls into play the reasoning and interpretation that is involved in all phases of learning social science material. Dawson comments upon this point as follows:

Tests may "require pupils to go to sources of information and quickly determine whether or not the alleged facts will bear investigation. The question may refer to a party or candidate who 'points with pride' at certain things, thus sending the pupil on a search for information as to whether or not these were really things to be proud of; really existed; and were really the result of action by the party claiming credit for them. While information must be accumulated, the real purpose of the social studies is to cultivate facility in using information and drawing inferences from it."

Johnson, in testing geographical information, would not emphasize mere location on a flat map, but would provide the student with a real map showing valleys, mountains, and plains. The pupil would be required to indicate clearly the height above sea level of a certain place and compare it with the altitude of other places well known in the community in which he lives. He would also have him estimate and compare distances, calculate the area of a district and compare it with an area familiar to him. In such questions as these, stress would be placed upon the fact that people dwell in regions whose character is partially determined by geographical conditions.

There is an implication for classroom method to be derived from the discussion of tests of the ability to understand, interpret, and apply information. Briefly stated, it is that the reasoning of the test period should be preceded by similar reasoning processes in the teaching of the unit. If stress in teaching is placed upon reasoning about and interpretation of material and the tests actually measure these abilities, we will have taken a long stride forward in eliminating cramming before examinations, because the cramming procedures now followed would be practically worthless.

It is apparent that the purpose of testing determines the type of test to be used. There has been much controversy concerning the relative merits of the traditional essay type of examination and the new type of objective tests. Both essay and new type tests have legitimate rôles, being supplementary rather than opposed to each other.

The essay test measures a combination of factors including vocabulary, memory, English usage, comprehension, and ability to organize material or, in short, the ability to gather information and present it effectively. A number of these, for example the organization of materials, cannot be adequately measured by present forms of new type tests and for these purposes we are forced to rely on the essay type of question.

New type tests have certain advantages over essay tests in that they are more objective and permit a more adequate sampling of the students' knowledge. The chief objection to the essay test is that its subjectivity lowers the reliability of scores obtained. Paulu reports a study in Edmunds County, South Dakota, in submitting an American History paper to a large group of teachers attending a convention there. The marks as recorded by these teachers ranged from 12 to 20 with 20 the highest possible score. Ruch, in the *Improvement of the Written Examination*, reports that 91 teachers graded a pupil's answer to a question in geography and showed a range of 2 to 20 out of a possible 20 points. Many studies show similar results.

The essay test is unreliable due to the limited sampling of a pupil's knowledge. Five to ten questions asked in a given period are hardly sufficient. Other things being equal, the longer the examination, considering the number of questions or actual working time, the more valid and reliable the results. Other important objections to the essay examination are that scoring is uneconomical of the teacher's time and that it encourages bluffing by students.

Due to these difficulties with the essay test, the new type or objective test has recently come into prominence. The advantages claimed for this type are that it is more objective, the sampling is more adequate, it has greater reliability per unit time, and it minimizes the temptation to bluff.

CAUSE-RESULT TEST^a

"In each of the lists below are the names of three events that acted as 'causes' and of one which was the 'result' of the operation of the three 'causes.' You are to find the effect and underline it.

1. Religious persecution. Colonization of America. Desire for adventure. Desire for political independence.

2. Revival of learning. Discovery of the compass. Discovery of America. Voyages down the coast of Africa."

^a Pressey, L. W. and Richardson, R. C., *Test of Understanding of American History*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co.

READING TEST⁴

Read the paragraph carefully. Then read the statements below it and put a check mark (✓) on the dotted line in front of each statement which contains an idea that is in the paragraph or that can be derived from it. The paragraph and statements may be re-read as often as is necessary.

The royal palaces of Ancient Peru were on a magnificent scale, and far from being confined to the capitol or a few principal towns, were scattered all over the provinces of their vast empire. The buildings were low, but covered a wide extent of ground. Some of the apartments were spacious, but they were generally small, and had no communication with one another except that they opened into a common square or court. The walls were made of blocks of stone of various sizes, rough-hewn but carefully wrought near the line of junction, which was scarcely visible to the eye. The roofs were of wood or rushes, which have perished under the rude touch of time that has shown more respect for the walls of the edifices. The whole seems to have been characterized by solidity and strength rather than by any attempt at architectural elegance.

- 1. The palaces of the sovereigns were extensive but low.
- 2. The empire of Peru was very small.
- 3. The buildings were made of finely chiseled stone with no rough faces.
- 4. The rooms were large and high for the most part.
- 5. The royal palaces were built of stone with wood or rush roofs.
- 6. There were no small rooms in the royal palaces.

The samples presented above illustrate the possibility of constructing new type tests which tests the fundamental thought processes.

It is recommended that teachers draw up a very definite statement of purposes and items to be tested before construction of the test. This assures balance between the various topics of the unit. There are several characteristics which should be kept in mind in the construction of good tests. The necessity of testing understanding rather than mere recall of particular words, events or phrases, and the desirability of establishing definite purposes have already been mentioned. In constructing tests, the individual should also attempt to make them as valid and reliable as possible. The term validity refers to the degree to which a test measures what it is intended to measure; and reliability can be briefly defined as the degree to which a test measures that which it measures, not necessarily that which it is supposed to measure. In order to assure validity, one should attempt to avoid faulty wording, items which are too easy or too difficult, tricky or "catch" questions, and should present full and simple directions. The chief means of obtaining reliability consist in the achievement of objective scoring and adequate sampling.

A number of studies of validity indicates that the best answer and multiple response tests are more valid than the true-false test and that all three are somewhat superior to the completion type. The completion test is largely limited to

⁴ Van Wagenen, M. J., *Reading Scales: History Scale A*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1921.

questions of the recall type and has proved to be a reasonably good intelligence test. Pupils of high intelligence are able to secure cues from the individual items which permit them to make good scores even though their knowledge and understanding are more limited than that of less intelligent but more industrious members of the class. It should also be mentioned in this connection that, other things being equal, the longer the test, the more valid. That is to say, that of two tests, one of twenty-five items, and the other of one-hundred items, equally well constructed, the longer test will almost certainly be more valid and reliable.

A satisfactory test should have the confidence of the pupils who may be discouraged by items which test knowledge of inconsequential details alone and who recognize that such tests are hardly fair.

The test should be comprehensive and should have a proper balance between the important information, skills, and generalizations of the unit under consideration. Preparation of a list of items to be covered in the test before actual construction is attempted will greatly enhance the possibility of securing a properly balanced measuring device.

Phrasing of items of information should be new and the vocabulary should be carefully considered to ensure that the terms used will be within the scope of the students' knowledge. All answers to best answer and other multiple response tests should be made as plausible as possible and the items should be homogeneous rather than heterogeneous.

Many teachers have found that the practice of jotting down questions as they come to mind helps to assure balance and eliminates much of the brain wracking process common in the construction of tests. These items may be written on 3 by 5 cards which can be easily rearranged.

Scoring of tests should be as economical of the teacher's time as possible. For this purpose, the new type of objective examination is greatly superior to the essay test which requires long hours of laborious reading of pupil responses.

Too great emphasis cannot be placed upon the necessity of careful editing of all test items before administering them to pupils.

The analysis of test results reveals information concerning individual pupils' special abilities and weaknesses, weaknesses in teaching of particular topics and information about the test itself. This analysis will be greatly facilitated by charting the responses of individual pupils to each item in the test. A table or graph presenting the total scores of individual members of the class will also present significant information. Table I illustrates one manner of arranging pupil responses to facilitate this analysis.

Analysis of such a distribution of results should present several types of data. The pupils of the class may be divided into thirds by the teacher on the basis of their previous records. If the majority of better pupils make correct responses to a given item, it may be assumed that that item is fairly reliable; whereas, if the better pupils consistently scored that item incorrectly, and the lower third of the

class had medium success, further scrutiny of the item is desirable. The adequacy of the whole test may be estimated in a similar manner.

If this analysis shows that all pupils scored a given item correctly, as in item 6 in Table I, it may indicate that that item is too easy or that the answer is given away by the wording of the item. The reverse is also true and if an item, such as items 2 and 15 above, is missed by all or almost all of the students, the item should be carefully scrutinized to determine whether it is too difficult or whether

TABLE I
ANALYSIS OF PUPIL RESPONSES TO A TRUE-FALSE TEST.

Pupil	Number of Item																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
A		x	x					x			o		x		o			x		
B		x		o	o			o		o	x		o			o			o	
C		x			x					x		o			x					
D	x						x						x		x					
E		o													x					
F		x			x		x				x				x			x		
G		x					x								x					o
H		x													o					
I	x		x				x	x			x		x		x	x	x		x	
J		x		x									x		x			x		
K		x	o		o						o			o	x		o		o	x
L	x	x	o		x			x						x	x	x			o	
M		o						x			o		x		x	x				
N		x		o			x				o			x				x		
O	o			o			x			o		o		x	x		o		x	

x indicates an incorrect pupil-response.

o indicates that that item was omitted.

there is some other element such as a tricky statement that renders the item unreliable.

It is apparent also that such analysis may be very valuable in guiding teaching. Valid items in the test repeatedly may be missed by even the better students, indicating that re-teaching of that particular item is necessary and that the teacher may well consider an alteration of teaching method when that topic is reached at a later time. Valuable evidence may be obtained as to the relative emphasis to be placed on particular aspects of subject matter both by the use of pre-tests or exploratory tests at the beginning of a unit of work or by careful test analysis at the conclusion of the teaching unit.

A third and final type of information to be gained from analysis of test results may be illustrated by the use of two imaginary test papers. Let us suppose that pupil A on a 50 item True-False test missed ten items which, when graded on the basis of the number right minus the number wrong, netted a score of 30. Pupil B missed only three items but omitted 14, thereby receiving the same raw score as A. Careful consideration of these two papers may reveal that the score of Pupil A may have been gained in large part by guessing or that B is a very careful worker who did not guess, but suffered from a very real vocabulary or reading difficulty. Such interpretation may be invaluable in disclosing individual problems.

Civic Education for the Public Schools

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In the past several years, much has been written and spoken about the teaching of civics in the public schools, but there is little agreement in what should constitute a complete program of civic education. The challenge has been well established by the National Council for the Social Studies,¹ and in the National Survey of Secondary Education.² How curriculums and courses should be revised; where the education for citizenship has failed; what parts should be emphasized; where certain phases of this education should be placed; why more serious attention is needed to a program of proper development—all have received considerable attention from the educators. Some of the suggested changes have been evolutionary while others have been revolutionary.

However, there is grave danger of being so busy with the development of the philosophy involved in civics, that an appreciable change in the actual teaching and learning of citizenship may be neglected. Over-emphasis upon the objectives to be attained, or upon some one phase of the problem without due consideration of its relationship to the whole process, may lead to confusion rather than to success. The need for better instruction and for a better program of civic education in all twelve years of the public school is recognized. Each part of an entire program should be logically placed, and its emphasis should be conditioned by the scientific findings of psychology and education.

All ambiguity, incongruity, verbosity, and impracticability should give way to a well organized and systematic framework for teaching worthy citizenship. The teaching cannot be so hidden in materials, methods, and technicalities that learning fails to result. Instead of merely trying to talk intelligently about laws of learning, proper attitude and habits, learning to do by doing, transfer of training, motivation, and such terms found in the professional literature, a program of actual pupil-civic transformation must be set into operation.

Too often the citizenship program has been negative in character. The old saying that "an idle mind is the devil's workshop" may be the origin for such a program. However, in being kept busy as insurance against the development of bad civic habits, pupils often are led directly into malpractices by the teachers themselves. A star for each pupil who has said that he brushed his teeth each day, or a badge for some other supposedly good deed, has taught many youngsters to see how easy it is to gain recognition by telling falsehoods. Procedures of this type focus attention on the award instead of the proper action. An insistence

¹ *Fourth Yearbook: The Social Studies Curriculum*. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1934.

² *Instruction in the Social Studies*. Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 21. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, 1933.

that a pupil can recite followed by praise after a miserable attempt, because the teacher wanted to give encouragement, certainly does not develop proper civic attitudes. Continual insistence on good grades has driven many youngsters to all types of deceit. The accusation that the public schools are teaching pupils to be dishonest and poor citizens must be refuted not by words but by a virile positive program of civic education.

There appears to be a tendency in America to first look toward the secondary school when a need, or reorganization, of any kind is suggested for education. This has been true for many suggested needs in civic education. While there is room for improvement in the secondary schools, there is also great need for a better citizenship foundation in the elementary grades.

From the scientific information at hand, it appears sensible to divide the education of citizenship for the public-school pupils into four parts. Each step should include three grades—starting with the first three primary grades and ending with the last three grades of the senior high school. The break between these various levels of citizenship learning cannot be abrupt, but the process of development necessarily must be gradual.

The civic responsibilities for pupils of the primary grades are few, and the standards may vary according to the community. However, these standards center around the activities of the home and the school. Pupils in the primary grades could be taught their civic responsibilities on a low imitation level which, however, is likely to be superficial. It would be better to place citizenship teaching and learning on a high rationalization and reflective thinking level. The idea of any civic standard can be presented first through conversation, stories, and pictures which are within the experience of the pupil. To have the child get a clear idea of some such thing as obedience is easier to talk about than actually to accomplish. Many teachers talk in general terms of obedience, honesty, courtesy, and such standards; but to develop a specific concrete concept of the social standard is different. The child soon discovers that trying to live according to the many civic standards in social conduct brings conflicts. Here is the place where specific education, about which so many teachers talk, must be put into practice. Obedience to the parent, for example, is different from obedience to the policeman or to the playmate. This sort of teaching is very difficult since civic standards have both a general and a specific interpretation.

After adequately interpreting the idea of a civic standard, it then should be developed into an ideal of action. This can be done by vividly using visual aids, dramatization, songs, memory gems, and stories. If the knowledge can be made a part of the feelings, progress will have been gained toward making the standard of conduct more an integral part of the pupil. But the third step, actual doing, is also necessary. Not only should the child know and feel these standards, but opportunities for habit activity should be developed through play, work, creative dramatizations, and real life situations. Too much teaching of civics, good citizenship, has been merely talking at the pupils on the basis of the old saying:

"Theirs not to make reply
Theirs not to reason why
Theirs but to do and die."

Teachers often have felt that they could tell pupils how to act and good citizenship was sure to follow. When the ideas of civic standards are analyzed; when the ideals are formulated; and when the habits are started in conduct as applied to various circumstances, better learning results should be obtained for the immediate as well as future time.

A teacher, to lay such a foundation in social studies in the primary school, should be the best trained person on the staff. This person cannot afford to specialize in only one line of academic knowledge. In addition to science, history, and literature she must know political, economic, and sociological life well enough to take it apart into its minutest form and rebuild it properly in the minds of the growing child. Teachers in the upper grades have the advantage of having pupils able to help themselves. Then too, the primary teacher should have both a knowledge of psychological laws and the ability to utilize the proper findings of psychology. The findings of the science of education should, also, be a part of such a teacher's equipment. This type of preparation should be in addition to the present heavy load of needed knowledge in teaching reading, numbers, spelling, writing, music, art, and language. It is difficult to conceive that a primary teacher, even when well selected, could be properly prepared in less than five years above the secondary school.

The civics of the intermediate grades should be a continuation of the work started in the primary grades. Those civic standards taught in the first grades must be readjusted to the new social groups which the pupils meet in their wider experiences. These wider experiences require the teaching of new civic concepts. The fourth grade brings to the front the servants of the home community; the fifth grade extends the experiences into intercommunity relationships; the sixth grade presents the inter-relationships resulting from business and commerce. Naturally the ideas, ideals, and habits for new standards should be taught according to the increasing need resulting from new contacts and experiences. These new contacts make the re-teaching of some of the standards of the lower grades necessary because of new social competitions, coöperations, and possibly conflicts. Obedience to home and school may have been well taught in the first grade; but in the sixth grade obedience to a policeman, to a politician, or an industrialist is entirely different. At present there is little systematic attempt made to teach civic standards, but there is even less effort taken to re-teach and re-direct them in their manifold uses. It is therefore necessary for the schools bravely to face the task of building basic civic concepts for the lower-grade pupils only after all the factors in each situation have been carefully and fully analyzed.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The civics teaching in the junior high school grades should assume new responsibilities. Again, the standards taught in the elementary school should be extended and adjusted to the new experiences of pupils. The ideas, ideals, and habits of conduct should be adapted to the larger group standards, especially as applied to the school organization itself. The old ideas that good citizenship will result merely from history reading, or from a study of technical government, or from reading a civics book have fallen short even though they all may have some value. The book value in citizenship education is like reading a rule book to learn the game of basketball—essential and helpful—yet the real valuable thing is the drill in the game itself. It is the task of the school teachers to organize the experiences through which the pupils will be given rules, coaching, and real help in the game of life. These experiences in the junior high school can be obtained through games, athletics, scouting, and school government. These, if not entirely directed by the social-studies department, must be directed by those who at least appreciate and understand the civic-social values involved. In the junior high school, there is a danger of social-studies teachers becoming too content at developing pupils into book experts, rather than being eager to develop pupils into citizens who understand their many complex civic situations, and who are educated in proper reactions.

Students in the junior high school should start to understand the purpose of government as a real present school need before government is taught as a state or national issue. Through home rooms, assemblies, class organizations, club organizations, and school organization the need for rules and regulations can be illustrated. Through these, practical education in meeting governmental needs can be taught. There is nothing bookish or foreign in this type of learning, and it later can be extended to larger social groups. There is little or nothing in this type of teaching which will create controversial and dangerous community problems so often present when junior high schools try to examine community problems too closely. The students, by the time they are through the junior high school, should be taught to meet coöperatively with the faculty those problems which face a school in its conduct and routine work.

Why take pupils to a public polling place where the value is questionable when a real poll under school control and of direct interest can be used? Why vote farcically for public officials when pupils ought to vote in reality for their own representatives, and when privileges and responsibilities can be taught along with this procedure? Why read all about how elections should be run when a wonderful chance can be developed for real coöperation in government right in the school itself? The time used for plays, Americanization courts, mock trials, and conventions had better be used for the actual problems involved in running a junior high school where real trials, conventions, and school courts can be used advantageously.

Ills and shortcomings of the nation, state, and community are often pointed

out to civics classes; and the autocracy of some ruler is severely criticized in history classes, when the pupils sense similar poor social conditions in the management of the class, or even in the conduct of the school itself. More ideas from the George Junior Republic, from the Junior Red Cross, and from Scouting are needed in our junior high-school social-studies teaching, especially as applied to the development of civic responsibility.

There is a big difference between solving problems on paper and in real social life, as many public officials can testify. School pupils, and even so-called educators, are often accused of being impractical; and if true, their continual protection from the serious problems of real life is a reason for this. The real laboratory of life is not used enough and the sole reliance on books used too often. The junior high school should start its pupils to analyze their own social action and give them aid, guidance, and support in these first steps of self direction. This will take time, effort, and experimentation; and above all it will require teachers who really know how to help pupils develop the habits of meeting real social needs according to evidence rather than preconceived hypothetical book information. These teachers will have to understand economics, political science, and sociology so thoroughly that their principles and laws can be translated into commonplace school or club activities. Teachers, to do the work effectively, need actual experience along these lines in their teacher preparation, and they should be accepted as teachers only on demonstrated ability rather than credits in social studies.

The books for the pupils should be manuals and guide books as used for scouting rather than textbooks written for an adult business world. These guides should give aids for the teachers in the handling of this experience program in club work, student government, and group guidance.

In the elementary grades, certain basic civic concepts were advocated through more or less individualistic teaching methods. For the junior high schools, pupil group action was stressed. The starting point should be the pupils' own experience in all this work. In the senior high school, certain laws and principles needed in our complex adult life should be taught in more than just theory.

In the tenth year, a very complete course in sociology should be organized. This course could show many social groups with their complex problems. Since the junior high school pupils will have found their own group to be rather complex, and not too easy to control, a sociology course will fit in logically. The origin, development, structure, and function of numerous societies should be studied in a practical way, basing the work on experience and current problems rather than just following a textbook page by page. With the course in sociology, the work of being a real student should be emphasized, but not to the extent that practicality is forgotten.

In the eleventh year, economics should be studied in a very complete manner. The work in sociology would show how many social problems had an economic background or origin. As in sociology, economics should grow out of present-day problems rather than follow a textbook verbatim. Teachers should stress the

difference between various "isms" based on hypotheses or theories, and ideas based on sound economic principles and laws. In all the senior high-school work, controversial problems should be fearlessly attacked with both sides stressed. Teachers should refrain from taking sides, but the pupils should be educated to develop conclusions of their own on the basis of evidence rather than to develop into "yes" men and women.

Every student, if not while in high school most surely upon graduation, will have economic problems to face. Our nation has been accused of being economically illiterate, and essentially it is guilty. Our schools do not need to indoctrinate pupils with an "ism," but certainly they have an obligation to fulfill in giving the future citizens of the nation an opportunity to fully appreciate the problems involved in this fundamental subject of economics.

In the twelfth year, political science should be taught. This is the logical place since the students are soon to become active participants in our government. The approach to this course should be similar to that mentioned for economics.

In addition to these courses in the senior high school, the students' participation in government started in the junior high school should be continued. However, the work should be extended to include community projects. Instead of just learning to participate in its own government, the senior high school should start to coöperate with the community in such things as recreational work, clean-up campaigns, lyceum courses, and adult education.

The ideal situation would have the senior high-school students so developed that they could gradually fit into the work of the community with full rights and privileges. This goal would include suffrage and office holding upon high-school graduation. Such a program would be much better than to have fully developed boys and girls civically loafing several years after high-school graduation, waiting for the magical year of twenty-one to arrive.

Relating the War of 1812 to Current Problems

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The secret of good teaching is good motivation. An interesting motivating device will instantly transform the most disinterested class into a scene of productive activity. Nowhere can this fact be demonstrated better than in the teaching of the social studies. Consequently, generally it is with great eagerness that social-studies teachers welcome new methods of approaching very old subjects.

There are two commonly used methods of conducting group study in the modern history course. One is the inductive method, a system whereby a large number of facts are amassed around a given subject, and upon consideration of these facts, a tentative conclusion is reached. The other method is the deductive process whereby a hypothesis is stated, followed by a search for facts on the problems which will either tend to prove or to disprove the thesis. Undoubtedly, the former method is the more widely used, but there is a growing appreciation for the use of the latter as an interesting and instructive approach to social, political, and economic problems. Such a method of approach is suggested here for a series of events in United States history that have long defied the secondary-school teacher in his attempts to make them interesting, meaningful, and capable of current application. The series of events referred to are those which culminated in the War of 1812.

Undoubtedly, there are some good reasons why the student's perusal of this phase of our history has neither stimulated his interest, nor fired his imagination. In the first place, he frequently does not have a good background of European history at his command, and as a result, is unable to see the relationship between leading events in Europe during this period and the current social, political, and economic activities of our people. Furthermore, as the average adolescent seeks to unravel the web of diplomacy spun by Jefferson, Madison, Napoleon, and Canning in the early part of the nineteenth century, the real issues often become blurred, with the result that the meaning of the whole assignment is lost. With no comprehension of the significance of the conflict, no consideration is given to the valuable lessons that might be learned from it.

In order to overcome the lack of interest and to give a purpose to the study of this segment of our history by closely relating it to current events, the following approach was found helpful.

The block of work that leads up to, and includes, the War of 1812 was presented to the class by means of a brief lecture which was developed around four main points:

1. The stated and generally accepted causes for the War were not synonymous with the actual causes.

2. It was impossible more than a century ago for the United States to remain isolated in the western hemisphere.
3. It was impossible more than a century ago for the United States to remain neutral when the major powers of the world were at war with one another for any extended length of time.
4. The War was futile because it did not accomplish any of the things for which it was fought.

The presentation of the above hypotheses proved stimulating at once to the majority of the group. This is easily understood when it is realized that practically all of the statements might be interpreted as questions facing our people at the present time. A shift of emphasis from the particular to the general is a simple matter, and as a result of such a shift, the above statements, without changing their value for critical study and discussion purposes, might be made to read as follows:

1. Stated and generally believed and accepted causes for war are not synonymous with the actual causes.
2. It is impossible for the United States to remain isolated in the western hemisphere today.
3. It is impossible, in the twentieth century, for the United States to remain neutral when the major powers of the world are at war with one another for any extended length of time.
4. War is futile because it does not accomplish the things for which it is fought.

Such questions as isolation, neutrality in case of another world war, the believed and real causes of the last international catastrophe, and the advisability of war as a method of accomplishing various objectives, are all questions that are discussed with considerable bias every day in the press, around the dinner table, and at various social gatherings. The events preceding and following the War of 1812 present an opportunity to study a period in history when these same questions were being thought of and discussed by our people. It is understood, of course, that history never repeats itself exactly, but it often offers analogous situations which may act as landmarks in helping us to steer our present course.

After introducing the unit of work, the class was put to work searching for material to prove or disprove the contentions made in the presentation. Practically all of the standard United States history texts abound with material which, in general, support the theses. For example, in support of the first hypothesis, it is an easy matter for students to find the stated and believed causes for the War. Impressment of seamen, the right of search, and protection for our merchant fleet—in short, the question of the rights of neutrals—stand out in bold relief as the then currently recognized causes of the 1812 conflict. Yet, as soon as our government committed itself to a policy of war, we find the merchant section of the republic, in whose interest the war was supposedly being fought, opposing the struggle bitterly, and virtually threatening to secede from the Union unless peace was made. The attitude of various New England leaders and the tone of the Hart-

ford Convention stand as monumental evidence to the fact that the protection of our sailors and our shipping was not the basic cause for our decision to cross swords with Great Britain. Therefore, a re-examination of the causes becomes necessary, and upon second thought and more study, it becomes evident that the controversy over shipping rights might have been ironed out peaceably had it not been for the influence of Henry Clay and the western "War Hawks," with their desires expressed in that "one eternal monotonous tone, Canada! Canada! Canada!" While it is always dangerous to indulge in apparently easy historical analogies, it is not impossible to use this War, along with other struggles in which our country has engaged, to show that the currently believed causes for an international conflict are not the same as the real causes.

When our country was in its cradle, as well as since it has grown to manhood, the cry of isolation was often heard. We should live unto ourselves alone in the western hemisphere, supplying our own needs, and confining all of our efforts to affairs within our own boundaries. Too much familiarity with things European was sure to bring about "entangling" influences. The years preceding the War of 1812 offer excellent material for reflection upon this oft repeated doctrine. Before the period of declared hostilities, this much advocated idea was carried to its extreme. We would cut ourselves off from the rest of the world, said Jefferson. In pursuance of such a policy an Embargo Act was passed, and for nearly a year and a half no American ship legally left its home dock bound for a European port. The result was a storm of protest from the shipping interests of the country and a drift on the part of the New Englanders in the direction of secession. Complete isolation had failed, and our governmental leaders had to look about for other means to ameliorate our international difficulties. Complete isolation failed in the early part of the nineteenth century because, from its very beginnings, our country has depended upon its international trade for its very existence. The necessity for that trade has grown tremendously in the last century, and yet there are many who believe that a most provincial type of isolation is possible. In the midst of recovery from a ravaging depression, it is interesting to discuss what the results of such a policy would be today. Again, the events surrounding the War of 1812 offer us a possible guide post for the solution of one of our modern problems.

There were many, during the early days of the republic, who believed sincerely that the quarrels of European rivals were none of our affair. Even if the major powers of the world should fly at one another's throats, we should keep clear of any part in the controversy. This attitude also has a modern flavor. However, the War of 1812 brought food for thought on this conclusion. A study of the period preceding its outbreak shows that all of our presidents from Washington to Madison did everything but move heaven and earth in an honest effort to keep from being sucked into the whirlpool produced by the ambitions of the principal powers of Europe. A neutrality proclamation, threats and preparation for war, Embargo Act, Nonintercourse Act, and Macon Act all followed one another in

rapid succession as attempts to defend ourselves without resorting to arms. Yet, even a hundred years ago, before our own territorial possessions extended half way around the world, and before we had billions of dollars invested in foreign lands, the best efforts of some of the most peace loving men we ever have had in high office could not keep us in that idealistic state of neutrality once the European quarrel was prolonged for any length of time. In the light of this conclusion, and in the light of what has happened in the world since the days of the "Virginia dynasty," it becomes rather easy to show how difficult it would be for the United States to stay immune should a general European war break out again.

Lastly, a careful study of the period preceding, and the treaty ending, the War of 1812 will offer intellectual meat to sustain the statement regarding the futility of the War. In support of this contention, three facts stand out over all others that can be produced. First, the British Orders in Council, which had been cited by many of our people as sufficient cause for war, were repealed two days before we declared armed hostilities. Secondly, our conquest of Canada, which Jefferson boldly claimed would be "merely a matter of marching," was a miserable failure, and thirdly, the Treaty of Ghent said nothing about impressment of seamen, nor did it guarantee us against use of the right of search by some European country in the future. Thus, it becomes difficult to show that any of the objectives for which the War was reputed to have been fought were accomplished. By revealing that the predicted goals of this War were not reached, there is forged another link in the chain of facts that seem to demonstrate that, while war always produces certain results, it seldom, if ever, produces the desired results.

Because the hypotheses used in presenting this unit of work are of current as well as historical interest, it will be found that students actually become absorbed in working over the available facts on the period. In addition, they begin to use their history as a means, or tool, for attacking a few of the major political and economic problems that are vexing the citizenry of our republic today. Obviously, a discussion that will follow a study such as this, will tend to bring out various sides of all the questions involved. Perhaps the different parts of the theses can be attacked successfully from a number of points. However, the method of approach described will lend itself to a realization of the objective that history is a subject of practical, functional, and current value as well as being the instrument through which we pass on the cultural heritage.

An Experimental Unit in the Social Studies: Lighting Through the Ages

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To break with the constant selection of traditional materials in organizing units of work in the social studies sometimes results in a refreshing experience to pupils and teachers. The inclusion of interesting supplementary materials which enliven the core of the traditional course and add to its scope offers unlimited opportunities in contributing to the enrichment of pupil understandings. Such a refreshing experience befell the pupils and teacher in a recent experiment in which the author ventured to depart from the beaten path.

HOW THE UNIT WAS CREATED

The fifth grade in our training school had been studying a unit on colonial life. The candle as a method of lighting proved to be very interesting to the class. Many of the children had attended the World's Fair and the others had read or heard a great deal about the exhibits there which show the progress man has made in various fields. The history of the growth and development of some of our common utilities as shown at the fair gave the class the idea. They suggested that it would be interesting if we could trace the progress made in lighting through the ages.

ENRICHING THE CHILD'S UNDERSTANDING

The development of the unit shows how children's understandings may grow. It was possible through this unit to give boys and girls some idea of the development of civilization. It was possible to give them some picture of the thing as a whole rather than isolated, scrappy bits that do not belong in any special place in the great procession of civilization. With this in mind there are certain results that are possible outcomes of the unit. They are:

1. An understanding of the changes that have taken place from primitive life to civilized life.
2. Through the story of man's use of light it is possible to see the evolution of mankind from early days to the present time.
3. There is a very long, gradual change from the primitive to the modern. It isn't revolutionary but slow and developmental.
4. Life changes because people learn to use things in nature.
5. The improvement in methods of lighting shows how men and women were improving ways of living.
6. Not just one person or race but many peoples and races helped develop and refine the ways of lighting the world.
7. It gives an understanding of the place of colonial life in world history and

makes this period more meaningful in time with reference to other periods in history.

8. It shows that light has contributed to safety and health in modern living.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNIT

The general set-up of the unit was arranged prior to the beginning of its development with the class. Expansions and modifications were made as interest increased and as needs arose directly in the class room. Changes were also made as new material and people became available for use in bringing about a better understanding of the unit. For example, arrangements had been made with a member of the public service staff in our city to give a lecture to the children on modern phases of lighting. During the development of the unit it became apparent that the lecture would be too technical for the grade level of the children. A substitution was made by bringing in a college student who was taking a science major. He gave a very interesting talk which was easily understood by the class.

No textbook was used in developing the unit. The material was chosen from reference books and such source materials as could be found. It gave an opportunity to train in finding and utilizing various source material rather than depending on a textbook. The unit was worked out in fifteen lessons. The procedure was as follows:

The first day was devoted to a study of how early man met the problem of light in his daily life. Primitive man depended upon nature for his needs. Of course the sun and moon were nature's first light sources. Man used them as light for the simple tasks he had to perform. But it was necessary to work at times and in places where these forces gave no help. He had to find a substitute. He looked about him and saw that fireflies might be carried around from place to place and so made to reflect light for the use of man. The children were interested to hear about the early lanterns that were made by gourds punctured and filled with fireflies.

On the second day the use of the torch or burning fagots was discussed. It was found to be a much more satisfactory light; it was portable and the material for light much easier to get. This kind of light was useful for work and in war. The story was told of the trick played by the Carthaginians on the Romans when they enticed the Romans away from their guarded pass by false manoeuvring of the torches.

They discussed the use of fire and light by the Indians in their tribal life and by moderns in festive occasions.

The story of oil lamps was presented on the third day. The first oil lamps were stone or merely shells filled with oil. The source of such oil was learned—how the whale furnished much of it. This phase of the subject was studied more in detail in the science class.

But one people or nation alone did not work out the problem of lighting. Contributions were made by many peoples. The Greek and Roman oil lamps

became very ornate. The round wick was introduced and found to be helpful in making a better light. The problems in using such lamps were studied. The children thought they were too dim; they were rather dangerous because the flame was exposed; and they were harmful to the eyes.

The children began the collection of different types of lamps. They brought to school shells, clay lamps, lanterns of metal punctured so the light showed through. One child brought an incense burner which was modeled like the Greek student lamp and gave a very good idea of the lamps of that time. Some children modeled clay lamps during their art period.

Light in the colonial home was furnished by candles. On the fourth day of the unit the candle was used as the topic for study. The reflection from one candle gave a very dim light but the thrifty housewife kept many on hand. For a more festive air in their social life many candles were lighted and sometimes hung from the wall or ceiling. The children were interested in finding out how the candles were made. Reference material from the library gave them sufficient information and they found out how the housewife made the candles.

On the day following this study the class took a trip to the city museum to visit the colonial room. The attendant gave a lecture explaining the furnishings of the home. Many sizes of candle molds were found with these furnishings. We borrowed one of the molds to make some candles at school.

The children added to their collection of lamps by bringing in interesting old candle sticks. One child contributed a pair of snuffers and an old brass candle stick, one hundred years old.

The class was then ready to make the candles and the next day this activity was carried out at school. Paraffin was used instead of tallow or wax. Little equipment was needed to heat the paraffin and pour it into molds. The candles came out successfully. The children wanted to see if they would really burn and we burned one throughout the story hour that day.

The seventh, eighth, and ninth days were spent in a study of the improvements in lighting made by three men of different nationalities—Argand, a Swiss physician living in London; William Murdock, a Scottish inventor; and Thomas A. Edison, an American. Argand contributed two new improvements in lamps. He added the flat wick and the chimney to the kerosene lamp. This new lamp gave a steady light and did not smoke. Comparisons were made between this and the old type of oil lamp. It was possible to bring in a number of these old lamps for the exhibit and various types of kerosene lanterns were brought.

William Murdock made an improvement when he introduced gas lighting. A few of the children had gas lighting at home and many knew it as a fuel for cooking or heating. It was interesting to note that Murdock and Arband made contributions from the ranks of the Scotch and Swiss people. It was thus again shown that no one people or nation developed the present lighting system.

But it was left to Thomas A. Edison to make the greatest contribution to lighting when he invented the incandescent electric light. It was almost unbelievable

that by the pressure of a button a room or rooms could be flooded with light. The class discovered that this new light is bright, clean and has no harmful gas. It seems to be the complete triumph of man over darkness.

One part of the class took a trip to the city light plant on the tenth day. None of the children had ever visited the plant before and of course this visit was interesting and instructive. The class found out what happens behind the scenes when we push the electric button in our homes. They saw how the controls are managed in lighting the different parts of the city. Each child located the controls that gave light to that section of the city where his home is located.

The next day the group that went on the trip to the light plant made oral reports or floor talks to the group that did not go. It was a good way to get the children to put across to the rest of the class the information gained on lighting cities and the listeners were hearing something that was new to them.

In order to show the children the difference between the candle light and electric light an experiment was made on the twelfth day. They were taken into a darkened room where on a table there were a number of candles and an electric reading lamp. They were of course not lighted. A child, seated at the table, was given a book to read. At first only one candle was burned. She found it hard to read by the dim light. Other candles were added to increase the light. These were snuffed out and the electric reading lamp was turned on to give a comparison between the modern efficient light and the dim candle. The children found that it took many candles to make a light by which they could read. They were better able to appreciate the modern convenience of the electric light and to more fully understand what life must have been in colonial times.

The class went into the lecture room on the following day and listened to a talk on lights and color by a college student who is a major in science. The lecture touched on some of the newer phases in lighting. He used laboratory equipment to demonstrate the different kinds and colors of lights. He told them of the difference in power, of the cost of using them, and of their value in home, business and advertising.

The fourteenth day was used for testing and summarizing the knowledge gained through the study of lighting. At the beginning of the hour an objective test was given, covering the unit. The children then received pieces of drawing paper cut to the size that would fit into our slide machine. They drew pictures to illustrate the various kinds of light sources about which they had learned in the unit. On one slide was drawn a firefly lantern; on another, an oil lamp; on another, a candle in its holder; and so on for all kinds of lamps they knew. The drawings were made in black and white or in colors and the best ones chosen for use in the machine.

Other members of the intermediate department were invited as our guests on the last day. The exhibit of different types of lamps was on display; floor talks were given by the children. The pictures which they had drawn on the slides the day before were thrown on the screen and used to illustrate their talks; and a

poem was read by one of the children, which she had written as her summary of lighting through the ages.

The firefly lights were not very firm,
But soon the torches started to burn.
And then the candles were next in line,
But people thought oil lamps fine.
Next came the gas lamp nicely lit,
And then electricity made a big hit.

—LOUISE FRANKS

CORRELATIONS

One value of such a unit organization is the tying up of the subject with many other phases of life and hence making them all richer and more meaningful. It is possible in a study of the development of lighting to reach out into many fields. In this study the following correlations were made:

1. Nature study and geography
 - a. A study of whaling and the source of whale oil.
 - b. Kerosene, where obtained and its uses.
 - c. Gas, its source, manner of obtaining and distribution.
2. Citizenship
 - a. Argand and Murdock as factors in contributing to life through better lighting.
 - b. Edison, who made a distinct contribution to a better plane of living through his numerous inventions.
3. Language
 - a. Oral reports and floor talks.
 - b. Poetry writing.
4. Literature
 - a. Stories of Indian tribal life and their ceremonies in which lighting plays an important part.
 - b. Hero stories of war and conquest—the use of light in war manoeuvrings; search lights and beacon lights as guides.
 - c. Use of light for festive occasions in modern life—holiday festivals, church ceremonies.
5. Art
 - a. Modeling of clay oil lamps.
 - b. Drawing illustrations in making slides for the picture machine.
 - c. Group project of a frieze showing the development of lighting.
6. Hygiene
 - a. Light and health—sun-light lamps, avoidance of eye strain in reading, better light in work-shops which provides better sanitation.
 - b. Light and safety—lights on streets and in danger spots; lights on trains, buses, cars, ships; train signals, light houses, beacon lights for air travel; red light at switch to show electric iron is on.
7. Thrift
 - a. Electric lights used in poultry houses to increase the length of day and thereby to increase the egg production.

- b. Electric conveniences which save labor and time.
- c. Effective advertising done by lighting.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

One of the outcomes of this unit is the training of the children in the use of source materials and the development of the power to use many reference books instead of one basal text. The children are trained in the method of using the library files to find references. They learn that there are many sources of material bearing on a particular topic. Our bibliography for this unit includes:

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Current Events in World Affairs

GEORGE H. E. SMITH

The Crisis in World Armaments
Recent Territorial and Related Problems
War in the Chaco
The Recovery Program Wends Its Way

The opening of a New Year is always a temptation to the commentator on public affairs to indulge in two luxuries common to the craft. There is a desire either to reflect on the past or to prophesize on the trend of events for the future. This is usually a dubious exercise, but if the facts are such as to permit reflection and at the same time hold down prophecy to practical considerations, no harm is likely to accompany the indulgence in either one. On the contrary, such a perspective may contribute much toward the better understanding of developments hitherto confused.

THE CRISIS IN WORLD ARMAMENTS

Details of the land and water armaments situation have already been presented in earlier issues of this magazine. With the approach of the year's end, however, developments have been such as to bring the entire world armament situation to a crisis of utmost importance for the future of world peace. Nations are now at a critical stage in their military and naval relations with each other. Unless by some bold stroke they can agree on a satisfactory program, intense rivalries are likely to ensue which will help set the stage for a war more disastrous than that let loose in July, 1914.

Momentous Shift in British Policy. In an address at the Lord Mayor's banquet in London on November 10, 1934, Prime Minister Ramsay Macdonald expressed a view which strikes a new and ominous note in British foreign policy. Stating that an understanding between the naval powers avoiding reckless, useless and extravagant competitive building of armaments would be one of the most conspicuous marks on the road to peace, he declared that "In the meantime, we have to take steps to secure that, if we were met by aggression, we would at least be in a position to defend ourselves." For years Great Britain took the risk of showing an example in disarmament to the rest of the world; but "our experience has proved that in the present state of mind of the world, disarmament by example is not an effective way to reduce the armaments of the world or to increase international confidence and so strengthen peace."

This is an utterance of the greatest significance. The note of resignation over the failure of the arms discussions, and the conclusion that Great Britain must henceforth look to her own national defense interests, opens the door to a shift in British foreign policy that may exert tremendous influence upon the actions of other nations. How quickly Great Britain may be pushed through this door into a peace-destroying arms race may be seen from the subsequent debate on November 28 in the House of Commons on national defense. Winston Churchill, employing the pre-war brand of jingoism under which Great Britain laid down "two keels for every one" that Germany built, said that if Great Britain did not put herself in a position of security it would be beyond her power to do so. Only this time the race will be shifted from the sea to the air. Ger-

many is rearming on land, to some extent on sea, and what concerns us most, in the air. Then he spoke of the peril of the incendiary bomb from the air which would drive four million people out of London into the country. The only practical measure for certain defense is being able "to inflict as much damage on the enemy as he can inflict on us." If that could be achieved, what would fifty or a hundred million sterling matter? Britain should decide now to maintain at all costs in the next ten years an air force substantially stronger than Germany's.

Even Stanley Baldwin, whose speech was much more moderate, took the position that while there is no immediate menace confronting us at this moment, "we must look ahead." There is ground for very grave anxiety. David Lloyd George, considerably chastened by his experiences during the World War and the Peace Conference, observed that it was a sinister fact that not a single government in the world was now discussing disarmament but that all were considering in what direction armaments were to be increased. He too believes that if the naval conference fails, there is no doubt at all that we are in for the competitive construction of big ships.

How Arms Discussions Are Carried On—"Bargaining Points." With both arms discussions—the Disarmament Conference and the preliminary talks on naval limitation—at a temporary stalemate, utterances such as these sound like the bluffing that is usually part of the game. A conference of this kind starts out with the most earnest expressions of desire for world peace. Each delegate spends some time heaping praises upon the delegates of other nations represented. Then the conference completes its organization and gets down to the real business at hand. Soon the differences between the demands of each nation begin to come to the surface. At first it is easy to compromise; and in this way many questions, technical and otherwise, are disposed of. But matters too difficult to compromise soon lead to a deadlock. Various efforts to "pour oil on the waters," to conciliate, and to "find a formula" out of the deadlock, follow with one nation and then another acting the part of peacemaker. Many times the matters in dispute go back to committees for reconsideration. But the sifting process reaches a final stage when some matters in dispute cannot be adjusted. If these matters are important enough, as they usually seem to be to the parties concerned, they may cause discord in the conference. Disruption and failure may follow as it did at the Geneva Conference in 1927.

At the various points during the process, one nation or another resorts to a bluff of some kind. Diplomacy does not call such tactics bluffing; it refers to the process as "bargaining"; and the delegations of each nation are usually provided with "bargaining points" of various kinds. An example of a "bargaining point" is the section in the Vinson Naval Bill of 1934 which authorizes the President to suspend the huge American ship-building program in the event an international agreement on naval limitation is reached. Thus the American delegation has the implied power to build or not to build a large number of ships as a "bargaining point." Another such point is the implied threat that if the Washington Naval Treaty is denounced so that its restrictions end in 1936, the United States will fortify American possessions in the Pacific. This is supposed to cause the Japanese to worry to such an extent that they will reverse their present stand on some point—say their claim to naval equality—and accept what the American delegation is willing to concede. This bluffing is quite a common practice. Sometimes it succeeds and sometimes it does not.

Now the recent utterances of British statesmen quoted above seem like the usual

bluff to break the stalemate. The purpose would seem to be to raise up such a fear of an arms race with all its high tax costs and danger to peace as to cause the delegates of other nations to temper their demands. Compromise would then be possible, the deadlocks may be broken, and a final agreement may be reached. But is the recent English position a diplomatic bluff or does it have a deeper significance? The answer seems to lie in an appraisal of the positions of two other nations: Germany with respect to the land armament situation on the continent of Europe, and Japan in the matter of naval armaments as they relate to the situation in the Far East.

British Recognition of the True Situation. Under Hitler, Germany has withdrawn from the League of Nations and the Disarmament Conference. The process of secret and even open rearming has been stepped up in the Reich to a feverish pace on one pretext or another. Every effort to bring Germany back into the League has been met with a demand for arms equality as a condition precedent to any sort of coöperation. All this is taking place on a European stage which is itself in a serious state of confusion and unrest, marked by frequent cabinet changes such as the recent one in France, agitations in southeastern Europe among the Hungarians and the members of the Little Entente, rumors of strange alliances, and constant increases in military expenditures. So that it seems to be reasonable to believe that British consciousness is at last impressed with the fact that Germany is in dead earnest; that she will not return to the League or to the Disarmament Conference without first receiving a place of arms equality and without having certain political and economic matters adjusted.

Likewise it is reasonable to believe that British statesmen have reached the same conclusion in the matter of naval arms also. For a time during the Far Eastern troubles in 1931-1932, and even after the Lytton Report, there were signs that the British did not take the Japanese position seriously. This, together with a fear for her own interests in Eastern Asia, restrained Great Britain in her attitude toward the Manchurian affair, and contributed much to the failure of the Great Powers and the League to change the flow of events in Manchuria. In the face of world disapproval as it was expressed in the League and other places, Japan held fast to her objectives. When Japan withdrew from the League, it was a shock to Great Britain. But there was still some doubt that after all this might be just a part of the game of diplomatic bluff. Then came the Japanese assertion in the spring of 1933 that Japan alone, or possibly only with China, was responsible for peace and order in Eastern Asia—a sort of Japanese Monroe Doctrine. This was followed up by demands for equality in naval strength and the abolition of the naval ratio system. The general trade competition offered to both the British and Americans throughout the world, and the possibility that in the matter of the oil business in Manchuria the "open door" would be closed to all nations except Japan, drove the true Japanese position deeper into the British consciousness. By this time the case for taking Japan seriously was a formidable one. A final blow was the determined stand Japan took in December, 1934, upon the matter of denouncing the Washington Naval Treaty.

Both Japan and Germany have been quite consistent in their demands and objectives in recent years. Many nations, especially Great Britain, seemed reluctant to take the situations seriously. They clung to the illusion that it was all a part of the diplomatic game; and they acted, or failed to act, accordingly. But Germany and Japan persisted; and Germany and Japan are pivotal points in the two great arms situations, land and water, European continent and the seven seas. Finally, it is reasonable to believe that

the British, in their characteristic way, "muddled through" to a clear realization that both Germany and Japan were actually in earnest. It was then that Stanley Baldwin spoke of the British frontier as being on the Rhine, and of the necessity "to look ahead" in the matter of national defense; that Ramsay Macdonald renounced disarmament by example and said "we have to take steps to secure that, if we were met by aggression, we would at least be in a position to defend ourselves."

The Critical Stage in World Armaments. This shift in British policy seems to raise the world armaments situation to its highest point since the armistice. It now seems to be generally recognized that the French and German attitudes are fixed along certain lines, that the Japanese are adamant, that the American position has crystallized especially in relation to naval arms, and that now even Great Britain has turned toward a set course. When the positions of the principal parties in interest are thus solidified, there is occasion for both hope and fear. Like the crisis in a serious illness, there is a possibility of a turn either way. Drift will endanger the situation and leave the future dark, uncertain, and menacing. Failure to face and solve the problems behind armaments and over which wars are fought may turn nations in upon themselves—as Great Britain appears ready to do—and an armament race like the one preceding 1914 may ensue with all its potentialities for disastrous consequences. On the other hand, nations may pay proper regard to their true national interests in the matter of defense and by a bold stroke toward a new, constructive national defense policy set the example that may lead the world safely out of a crisis now at a high point and fraught with danger for the peace of the world. What will actually happen must be left for the New Year to reveal.

RECENT TERRITORIAL AND RELATED PROBLEMS

It is safe to say that the new year will witness many disputes over boundaries and territories and related problems. To almost all of the old ones that are still unsettled many new ones will be added to excite the fear of the world and disturb its peaceful development. And even when a constructive solution is earnestly sought—as in the recent efforts of the League to make a satisfactory disposition of the Saar Territory—success is not always assured.

The Conflict in Southeastern Europe. Territorial problems in southeastern Europe, in the region of Austria, Hungary, northern Italy, and the members of the Little Entente, are almost certain to flare up because they are so intimately concerned with other factors such as racial, political and economic conditions. Ever since the murder of King Alexander at Marseilles, the tension between Yugoslavia and Hungary has been severe, with each accusing the other of disturbing infractions of the border relations. On November 22, the Yugoslav Government brought the matter into the open by depositing with the Council of the League of Nations an official demand for an inquiry into the situation. The demand was based upon an earlier memorandum from the Yugoslav Government to the League. Yugoslavia alleged that Hungarian officials permitted and even connived with terrorist bands located just inside the Hungarian border; that these bands, especially one organized on a farm called Janka Pusta, specialized in instructing criminal adventurers and discontented Yugoslav refugees in military training, how to shoot, and how to handle bombs and other infernal machines, and generally how to carry out assassinations and terrorist activities. A long list of outrages from 1932 to the present was set forth in detail showing bombings of railroad trains, stations, and public buildings. The Diplomatic efforts to enlist the aid of the Royal Hungarian Government in

the prevention of such activities were made without success it was alleged. In its conclusion, the memorandum took the position that "In tolerating on its territory an action directed against the integrity and public order of the Yugoslav State, the Hungarian Government has failed in an indisputable international duty." In its official demand for a hearing and inquiry, Yugoslavia declared: "In view of the gravity of these facts the Yugoslav Government, being anxious to maintain peace and relying on the authority of the League of Nations, finds itself obliged to bring before the Council, under Article XI, paragraph 2 of the Covenant, this situation, which seriously compromises relations between Yugoslavia and Hungary and which threatens to disturb the peace and good relations between nations." (The paragraph of the Covenant referred to is the one which states that it is the friendly right of each League member to bring to the attention of the Assembly or of the Council "any circumstance whatever affecting international relations which threatens to disturb international peace or the good understanding between nations on which peace depends.")

In separate, identical notes, Czechoslovakia and Rumania, the two other members of the Little Entente, joined in the Yugoslav complaint. It is this feature which gives to the Yugoslav action a greater significance than a mere complaint over unsatisfactory border relations. And to any consideration of the situation must be added the fact that the Yugoslav complaint is equally against Italy and Austria, although French influence and Central European politics succeeded in restraining Yugoslavia from emphasizing these aspects.

Hungary made immediate reply to the charges against her, and in a note to the Council declared that "since the crime of Marseilles (the assassination of King Alexander of Yugoslavia), Hungary has been the victim of a violent campaign and of the most far-fetched accusations" which "have already created a political atmosphere that is not only full of serious dangers for the ordinary relations between certain States in Europe but is capable of affecting even the peace of the world." The note closed with the statement that "it is the duty of the Council to place this question as soon as possible upon the agenda of its present extraordinary session. . . ." (The session referred to was the one of December 3 which had as its principal business a full consideration of what would be done concerning the Saar Territory after the January plebiscite.)

History has on too many occasions in the past demonstrated that it is folly for the world to treat these hostilities in Southeastern Europe and the Balkans as comic opera wars. The shot fired at Sarajevo in the summer of 1914 was echoed from millions of guns throughout the world; and the reverberations have continued in another form—the economic depression—up to the present moment. The principal troubles in the area center about the struggle for treaty revision which has been going on since the peace was concluded in 1919, and which has grown in intensity during recent years. It is not alone a matter for the members of the Little Entente who fear some sort of a restoration of the Hapsburg dynasty and of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Germany and Italy are swept into the struggle through their respective aims and activities in Europe. With Germany concerned in the developments, mainly through her claims for arms and territorial revision, France alleges fear for her own security and refuses to stand idly by. With France and Germany involved, Poland, and possibly Russia through a rumored arrangement with France, are drawn into the affair. Great Britain, growing keenly aware of the danger to her own security which air warfare implies, is no longer able to look upon Central European developments with the same sense of detachment which had

been the cornerstone of her foreign policy in the last quarter of the 19th century. Thus a vicious circle is created in which explosive forces in each nation in Europe are inseparably joined so that one touches off the others just as fuses on a fourth of July pinwheel ignite the separate charges that set the whole contraption spinning.

War in the Chaco. Territorial and boundary disputes between South American Republics have been quite numerous in the past, and on many occasions have led to open war. Most recent is the dispute between Paraguay and Bolivia over the Chaco district. Although this dispute had its origins in hostile operations going back more than half a century, its more recent phases date from the clash between the Bolivian and Paraguayan forces at Fort Vanguardia in December, 1928. Since that time several efforts to bring about a settlement of the dispute were made by neutral countries. A delegation on which the United States, Mexico, Cuba, Colombia and Uruguay were represented made earnest efforts to solve the problem, but the negotiations were ended when Paraguay refused to coöperate some six months ago. This was followed by the efforts of a commission of the South American powers—Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Peru—which failed because Bolivia rejected the formula they proposed. Actual hostilities broke out last May and have continued with varied successes first on one side and then on the other until the present time.

A special committee of the League of Nations adopted a report on November 17 embodying a plan for the settlement of the dispute. The report, which was prepared for the Special League of Nations Assembly called to deal with the dispute, recommended that Bolivia and Paraguay submit their dispute to the World Court. Meanwhile, a committee of neighboring countries were to organize and maintain a truce, and a final attempt at conciliation was to be made through another committee of neighboring countries on which it was hoped the United States would be represented. A League of Nations Consultative Committee was to follow up the proceedings and recommend whatever further action was required in the course of the negotiations. The League procedure was taken under Article XV, paragraph 4 of the Covenant, which has been used only on two other occasions—in the Manchurian situation and the other South American dispute over Leticia.

On the same day that the League was thus taking a positive move toward ending a war which has been a terrible strain to both countries and which has cost close to 100,000 lives, the Paraguayan forces achieved a dramatic military success. A surprise manoeuver enabled the Paraguayans to close in upon Fort Ballivian which has been the cornerstone of Bolivian defense in the southern Chaco along the Pilcomayo River. Six other forts in the surrounding district were taken later on the same day. The capture of more than 10,000 Bolivians was reported, and many others fled across the border into Argentina. For a time the success of the Paraguayan forces was denied, but toward the end of November confirmation of the defeat came in the form of reliable reports of a general retreat by Bolivian forces on all the battle fronts.

At the same time, the demoralization of the military spread to the Bolivian civil government when Vice-President José Luis Tejeda Sorzano assumed the presidency in the absence of President Daniel Salamanca who was reported to have gone to the Chaco. A press censorship resulted in conflicting rumors concerning Dr. Salamanca's trip to the Chaco; but whether he departed voluntarily or whether he was compelled to do so by the political and military situation, his absence provided the excuse for the application of Article LXXVII of the Constitution which provides that whenever the President

puts himself at the head of the army, the Vice-President shall assume the presidency. Subsequently, a report that Dr. Salamanca had resigned the presidency was confirmed. The internal situation is further complicated by the fact that the coup was made ostensibly to prevent the inauguration of the newly elected President Franz Tamayo whose Republican party won out over the Liberal party of Sorzano in the recent elections.

With the military victory arousing great enthusiasm in Paraguay, and in view of the possible internal disorganization in Bolivian civil affairs, the steps toward peace taken by the League of Nations have been crowded into the background. The turn of events may not destroy the peace efforts, but it is certain to delay them at least until order is restored within Bolivia and the true military situation is properly reappraised which in all likelihood will carry the dispute over into the new year.

THE RECOVERY PROGRAM WENDS ITS WAY

The Democratic "Landslide." The United States approached the year-end with a bewildering array of events covering a wide range of matters in every field of activity. The result of the November elections is already too well known to require more than passing comment here. Popular opinion recorded an overwhelming landslide for the Democrats which will give them some sixty-nine seats in the Senate and three hundred and twenty-two in the House of Representatives. More critical study of the tendencies in the campaign and subsequent election points to a curious breaking down of party lines even where "Democrats" were victorious. There seems to be little question but that the orthodox Republicans received a crushing defeat. Nothing else can account for the downfall of such old-line Republicans as Senators Reed of Pennsylvania, Fess of Ohio, Robinson of Indiana, Walcott of Connecticut and Kean of New Jersey. A similar list could be made up for the House. On the other hand, the brilliant success of both the Progressive LaFollette boys in Wisconsin, the re-election of Senator Shipstead and of Farmer-Labor Governor Olson in Minnesota, and the paradoxical muddles over party lines in the State and local campaigns, lend an air of uncertainty to the future political complexion of the country notwithstanding the Democratic "landslide."

Recovery Measures Before the Bar of Justice. For the second time, the Supreme Court upheld the New York Milk Control Act which among other things fixed minimum prices to be charged by dealers to their customers and also a minimum buying price to be paid by dealers to producers. Elsewhere along the legal front, government activities either directly in the line of the New Deal legislation or moving in the shadow of its spirit are recording considerable success in winning the support of the courts. A report from the NRA lists 67 victories in 73 suits, which "continues the proportion of favorable decisions above 90 per cent" to date. On the other hand, at Birmingham, Alabama, Federal Judge W. I. Grubb, in a preliminary decision involving the activities of the Tennessee Valley Authority cast legal doubt upon its right to produce and sell electricity as a direct and primary function. If the final decision takes the same stand, the practical effect may be to curtail, at least temporarily, many of the activities which the Authority has been conducting in the area under its jurisdiction.

Power Politics. While a court was thus dealing with the TVA in one way, President Roosevelt took another view in his inspection tour of the Government's great experiment. After stating on November 17 in his Harrodsburg speech dedicating a monument to the honor of the early pioneers, that the present situation calls for "new pioneers" on "new frontiers," the President moved on to Clinch River and there hailed the workers as "vet-

erans of a new kind of war—a war to improve the conditions of millions of our American people." His speech at Tupelo two days later was in some respects one of the most important in recent months because it presented clearly some of the policies and objectives toward which the administration is moving. Again referring to the work of the TVA, the President said "What you are doing here is going to be copied in every State of the Union before we get through." He observed that there will be "a certain amount of rugged opposition to this development," but that it will fade away in the light of practical experience. Later, on the same day at Birmingham, the President again referred to the fact that he was aware that "a few of your citizenry are leaving no stone unturned to block and harass and delay this great national program"; but "these obstructionists" are few in number, while the "overwhelming majority of your business men, big and little, are in hearty accord with the great undertaking of regional planning now being carried forward."

It must be recognized, however, that elsewhere in the nation there are groups who are not in accord with the President's power program. The decision of the Birmingham Federal Judge has already been mentioned. Far more formidable opposition threatens to come from another source, undoubtedly as a reaction to the President's Tupelo speech. Thomas N. McCarter, president of The Edison Electric Institute, an association that represents some 80 per cent of the country's power interests, made public a statement on November 23 which serves notice upon the Government that the members of the Institute intend to contest the legality of Government power operations. Among other things, Mr. McCarter declared: "I have now received a joint opinion of the two lawyers (Mr. Newton D. Baker and James M. Beck, "both constitutional lawyers of national reputation") relating to the Tennessee Valley Authority project. It is a lengthy and convincing opinion (which) holds in substance that the legislation relating to this project and the plan of governmental action set up therein is palpably unconstitutional." The resolution of the Board of Trustees of the Edison Electric Institute under which Mr. McCarter acted authorized him to employ counsel, engineers and economists, and to take such other steps as may be necessary to test the legality of the Government's powers. It will be recalled that the Edison Electric Institute succeeded the National Electric Light Association (NELA) which was recently reorganized after the Federal Trade Commission had disclosed, among other things, its widespread propaganda activities in the schools and colleges to influence teaching favorable to the private power interests. In a recent report to the Senate released on November 25, the Federal Trade Commission stated that its investigation established direct expenditures of \$1,312,264.77 over a period of years by utilities interests "to mold the thoughts and beliefs of the present and future generations" through the schools and colleges.

The U. S. Chamber of Commerce Will Support Some Recovery Program. While on the one hand strong opposition to the Roosevelt program appears to be gathering, business in general as represented by the United States Chamber of Commerce took action to align itself behind the President. The reason for this action, according to Mr. Silas Strawn, who introduced the resolution, is that "From the recent election it certainly would seem that President Roosevelt has the overwhelming approval of the American people." The action of the Chamber was hailed in the newspapers as full business support for the Recovery Program; but such a conclusion is questionable since the resolution itself stated: "this chamber pledges itself to coöperate to the fullest with all other organizations in an endeavor to reach a common agreement upon a program which will be

fair and just to all and which will accelerate the efforts toward recovery." The wording of this resolution is worthy of careful study by the administration. It may be discovered subsequently that this is quite another thing from an endorsement and support of the administration's recovery plans.

Industry and Agriculture. Among the large number of official orders relating to business, the President extended the Automobile Code to February 1, 1935 and ordered a study of employment conditions in the industry. At the same time the Federal Communications Commission ordered a full inquiry into the affairs of the American Telephone Company and its associated or related companies which may provide the information on inter-company relations which the Telephone Company has been able to keep from State Commissions for years. Seeking a way to decentralize the NRA's field force in the matter of more efficient enforcement of the labor and fair practice provisions of the codes, the National Recovery Board approved a plan to set up ten autonomous regional offices with broad powers to act without reference to Washington. Much of this, however, is likely to be changed considerably by the more permanent plans for industry now being considered in the present Congress. On November 28 the Agricultural Adjustment Administration made public its 1935 cotton control program which will seek to hold down next year's crop to 12,000,000 bales with rental and benefit payments of approximately \$94,230,000. This followed the announcement on the week previous of the 1935 corn and hog program which provides for reductions in the national output of a minimum of 10 per cent under the 1933 average, with the cash outlay of \$165,000,000 to farmers coöperating in the program.

Relief. Pending the various plans for unemployment insurance and other programs for relief now before the Congress, the most important development in this field is the tendency toward a decided shift away from doles toward the expansion of certain forms of work relief programs which closely resemble the famous EPIC plan proposed by Upton Sinclair. The Government has been operating similar programs in a modest way all along; but the present trend looks toward a great expansion of the idea. There is no reason why it should not be done, if the normal operations of business cannot absorb the large numbers of people who are still out of work. By putting people to work in idle factories and workshops, in sawmills and brick plants, in canning and other food-processing establishments, and by devising a way for them to exchange the products among themselves, relief needs may be met at the same time that the self-respect of the unemployed is maintained and their standards of living are raised. Such plans are in addition to the model communities and subsistence homesteads projects which the Government has been supporting in many areas throughout the country.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR
THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, *Chairman, Harvard University*

REGIONAL SOCIAL STUDIES BULLETINS

Among the regional social-science organizations are some which issue bulletins devoted to the activities and interests of their members. The Social Studies Department of the Missouri State Teachers Association issues monthly a mimeographed bulletin entitled, *The Missouri Social Studies Bulletin*. The October, 1934, number is devoted to "Classroom Practices," and the November issue is entitled, "Reorganization Number." The acting editor of this timely bulletin is J. C. Aldrich, Webster Groves, Missouri.

Another timely regional bulletin is the *Social Studies Leaflet* published four times yearly by the Southern California Social Science Association and editor by Cecilia R. Irvine, University High School, West Los Angeles. The October, 1934, issue contains several pertinent articles as well as very useful digests of magazine articles, book reviews, and up-to-date bibliography of materials for persons interested in the development of curriculum materials treating of social and economic problems.

The Detroit History Club issues monthly the *Detroit Social Science Bulletin*. To the October, 1934, issue of this bulletin Walter J. O'Neil contributes an article entitled, "Teaching Civics in the Intermediate School," and V. E. Rogers, in "A New Method of Teaching American History," describes how the work in his classes is so arranged that pupils master the facts as quickly as each individual is able and then devote time in the library to special research topics related to the unit of work.

The Column is interested in the work carried on by associations of social science teachers throughout the country and would appreciate receiving copies of any bulletins, leaflets, or other publications issued by the associations.

NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

The annual fall meeting of the New England History Teachers Association, which met November 17, 1934, in Boston, was devoted to the "New Age of Autocracies." In the discussion of the topic Professor Frank Nowak, of Boston University, spoke on Russia, Professor Harold U. Faulkner, of Smith College, on the United States, and Dr. Wolfgang Kraus, of Harvard University, on Germany. The officers elected for 1935 are: Warren O. Ault, president; Thomas Richardson, vice-president; and Horace Kidger, secretary-treasurer.

"BEST SELLERS" IN HISTORICAL FICTION

In adding Mary Johnston's *To Have and To Hold* to the Riverside Literature Series, the Houghton Mifflin Company announces that more than half a million copies of this thrilling modern novel of colonial adventure and intrigue have been put into circulation since its publication.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Dr. H. K. Beale, of the University of Chicago, has made an extensive study of the forces and agencies which control teaching in every community. The report of his findings, to be published later as a volume of the *Report of the Commission on the Social*

Studies, is available in the October issue of *Harpers* under the caption, "Forces That Control the Schools." Social-science teachers especially are urged to read what Dr. Beale has to say for he has said what most of us could not say without being called disgruntled. His is an impartial analysis of a subject too long neglected.

In the September, 1934, number of *Secondary Education* William G. Kimmel takes the position that "teachers in general must be granted an increasing measure of responsibility in the formulation of education policies and in the interpretation of those policies to the community." Social-studies teachers in particular can be leaders in the schools and in the community, "not followers insulated against community contacts, nor impatient in so far as their influence is concerned." The author feels that the most powerful help the social-studies teachers can give is in a "functional approach to education, viewing individuals, utilizing only functional content, and supplying it with the element of reality through direct applications from functional content to the community and its problems."

In the November, 1934, *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, Clifford E. Erickson describes in detail, in an article entitled, "The Use of Committees to Encourage Participation in Social Science Activities," his attempt to develop social methods instead of competitive, individualistic methods, of learning in his classes in the Haven School at Evanston.

INTER-SCHOLASTIC CORRESPONDENCE

The objective of the World League of International Education Associations is to bring American students in contact with students of other countries, so as to give them a clearer understanding of those countries. The League sponsors correspondence among groups in different countries. Discussions, lectures, assembly programs constitute the activities of the 350 groups that have been organized in the United States and abroad. Several of the groups join together and hold, once or twice a year, regional Junior International Institutes at which the representatives of different high schools take part in debates, model assemblies, symposiums on world affairs, open-forum discussions, etc. Teachers and pupils interested in the work of the groups should write to Mrs. Alice Wilson, World League of International Education Association, 521 Phelan Building, San Francisco, California.

MEETING OF NEW JERSEY ASSOCIATION

On November 10, 1934, the New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies held a joint meeting with the New Jersey Council of Geography Teachers in Atlantic City. Professor S. F. Patterson, of the Wharton School of Finance, University of Pennsylvania, spoke on "Modernizing the Social Studies Curriculum"; Professor Harold S. Sloan, of State Teachers College, Montclair, gave an illustrated lecture on "A Social Science Laboratory"; and the Committee on Revision of the Social Studies Curriculum gave its report. The newly elected officers are: Caroline Leonard, of Bayonne High School, president; Harry M. Fagan, of Atlantic City High School, vice-president; and Earle S. Palmer of Montclair High School, secretary-treasurer.

RECENT WORKBOOKS

Two new workbooks are added to the collection now available for choice as study aids in the teaching of American history in senior high schools. *Directed Studies in American History*, written by Horace Kidger and published by Ginn and Company, is made up of eleven units and contains abundant and varied activities, reference materials,

charts, maps, tests, and "visualizations." The visualizations require completion either by the individual pupil or by the joint decision of a class group after discussion. C. L. Kuhn and Olis G. Jamison organize the subject matter of *A Directed Study Workbook in American History* (Charles Scribner's Sons) around nine units and include ample bibliographies, maps, activities, tests, and other aids to learning.

UNIT STUDY BOOKS

The American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio, has recently issued a series of unit study books for use in the first four grades of the elementary school. Each unit study book deals with one central theme. The general objective of the series is to use the teaching of reading as an instrument to increase the young pupils' sense of responsibility for furthering the social betterment of the group to which he belongs. A few titles, with their grade placement, follow: First Grade, "How We Travel," "The Policemen," "The Firemen," "Our Houses," "The Library," etc.; Second Grade: "Our Shoes," "Pueblo Indians," "The Story of Milk," "The Postman," etc.; Third Grade: "Trains," "Flying," "Boats," "The Story of Bricks and Glass," "The Story of Heat," etc.; Fourth Grade: "The Vikings," "The Greeks," "Time," "Light," "Communication," etc. The books sell for ten cents each. For further information address the publishers.

NEW EDITION OF *Essential Facts*

The League of Nations Association issues a revised edition of *Essential Facts* in regard to the League of Nations, the World Court, and the International Labor Organization, up to date to October 15, 1934. This valuable booklet is the standard handbook for secondary-school classroom use in the social sciences and is also useful to other people who need authoritative information on the League, the Court, and the International Labor Organization in fairly concise form. It is priced at five cents and may be secured by addressing the Educational Committee, The League of Nations Association, Inc., 8 West 40th Street, New York City.

ADULT FORUM

Superintendent R. F. Lewis, of Marshfield, Wisconsin, has organized a group of about three hundred adults in his community in a "night-school course," which meets as a forum one night each week from October to April. Some of the meetings are addressed by speakers from nearby universities; other class sessions are led by Mr. Lewis. The talks given are informal presentations of current social, political, and economic topics and are followed by full, free discussion. The class is significant not only as one of the many agencies of adult education now being developed, but also as an illustration of the close relation which may exist between adult education and the public schools.

GOVERNMENT IN THE MODERN WORLD

Foreign political news is not the first interest of an American high-school student. Yet the problems of national and international governments are among the greatest in the modern world. W. A. Greene, of the Kingswood School, West Hartford, Connecticut, has organized the following units for the course he teaches on "Government in the Modern World."

- I. Public Opinion—How Is It Made?
- II. Types of National Government in Force Today
- III. Great Britain—A Limited Monarchy

- IV. United States—A New-World Republic
- V. France—A European Republic
- VI-VII. Germany and Italy—The Great Dictatorships
- VIII. Russia—A Communistic State
- IX. Japan—A Modern Nation of the Ancient East
- X. International Relations—How Nations Talk to Each Other
 - 1. The Diplomatic Service
 - 2. The Consular Service
 - 3. How Treaties Are Made
 - 4. International Law and the World Court
 - 5. The Peace Movement
 - 6. The War Debts
- XI. Great International Issues of the Current Year

FILM STRIPS

The United States Department of Agriculture, through its extension service, issues film strips for use in schools dealing with topics in dairying, crops, farm forestry, farm economics and engineering, home economics, etc. The strips range in price from 36 to 90 cents. By addressing Coöperative Extension Work, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C., a list of available films may be secured.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

The Cambridge Modern History (new edition). Planned by the late Lord Acton. General Editors: Sir A. W. Ward, Sir G. W. Prothero, and Sir Stanley Leathes. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. \$32.00.

If a prize were awarded annually to the publisher rendering the greatest service to students and teachers of world history, it would doubtless go this year to the Macmillan Company for bringing out a new edition of *The Cambridge Modern History* in thirteen volumes for the small sum of \$32. It is true that the maps and bibliographies have been omitted and this is a matter of genuine regret; but we should nevertheless be grateful for what we are about to receive. Now it is possible for teachers and high-school libraries to have a monumental work hitherto denied to them by a prohibitive price.

All trained teachers of world history are, of course, familiar with the scope and spirit of this vast historical survey. For those who have not yet had it at their command a few words may be said by way of description.

The Cambridge Modern History covers the period from the renaissance to the opening years of the twentieth century. Although centering primarily on Europe, it takes world affairs within its purview and has one volume devoted to the United States. It was planned under the direction of the late Lord Acton, whose erudition and industry were the inspiration and despair of all students belonging to the generation of the undersigned reviewer. The several parts and chapters have been written by British, Continental, and American scholars of high competence in their respective fields. This, to be sure, means some unevenness of performance in detail and some gaps which our contemporaries would fain have filled; but it is also a guarantee of scholarly precision.

While the emphasis of *The Cambridge Modern History* is essentially political—too political for the present generation—it takes within its sweep intellectual, religious, economic, and social interests as well. For example, it would be difficult to find anywhere in so brief a compass the indispensable facts of the classical renaissance more precisely set forth than in the sixteenth chapter of the first volume of this history. It opens with a survey of the classical learning known to Western Europe during the early middle ages, and then it traces almost microscopically the re-appearance of neglected or unknown classical works, one after the other, as Italian scholars searched far and wide for fragments of ancient learning. Here we are introduced to searchers, editors, and publishers who lift the veil from ancient wisdom and open the way to modern life and thought. By a careful study of this chapter, any teacher will be able to give pupils a very real notion of the world of learning as it appeared to European scholars at the opening of the fifteenth century, and to show them that every great advance of the human spirit is the work of many minds and many hands.

Scattered throughout *The Cambridge Modern History*, sometimes in the most unexpected places, are pages dealing with cultural life in its broadest aspects—pages which illuminate many landscapes, many dark corridors of forgotten times. Then there are pages written before the World War which foreshadow the shape of things to come. For example on page 13 of Volume XII appears this passage: "The development of the joint-stock company has rendered capital more fluid, has multiplied the owners of property, has substituted the fictitious person with its soulless mechanism of managing directors and board for the human and individual owner or employer, has concentrated

power without fixing responsibility, has diverted attention to stock-exchange speculation and company promotion in lieu of personal enterprise, has given opportunity for new forms of fraud, sometimes on a prodigious scale, and by the establishment of gigantic combinations, especially in the United States of America, has threatened to stifle competition for the benefit of colossal monopolies." Following this paragraph is another on the sterility of the arts amid swift scientific and industrial progress, and on the pessimism of the novelists who, it seems, dimly divined on Victorian days the devastating course of things into the World War and beyond.

Here then is a written, condensed record of six centuries, disclosing of necessity good and evil—noble achievements of mankind and base manifestations as well. Here is light for us in our everlasting quest for knowledge of the world in which all of us—teachers and pupils alike—must live and find our way. Here is a storehouse of facts from which we may make selections appropriate to the hopes and purposes of our own time. Mastery of these pages will not make giants out of pygmies, but it will give knowledge and insight to the strong.

New Milford, Connecticut

CHARLES A. BEARD

The Saar Struggle. By Michael T. Florinsky. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934. Pp. xiv, 191. \$2.00.

This little book presents one of the most useful summaries of the important aspects of a leading post-war problem that I have yet seen. It is the outcome of a long interest of Dr. Florinsky in the subject, climaxed by an entire summer's visit to the Saar Territory in 1934. On the basis of his extended readings, of researches carried on at Berlin, Paris, and Geneva, and of apparently numberless conversations with persons living in the Saar Basin, the author here has given, in conveniently condensed form, the story of this danger zone from 1919 to the present.

The first chapter deals with the early history and the geographic setting of the Saar, and with the provisions of the peace treaty relating to the region. Chapter Two describes the personal make-up and the governing policies of the various Saar Governing Commissions to 1932. A major portion of the space here is devoted to a discussion of the difficulties created by the pro-French attitude adopted by the commission's first chairman, M. Victor Rault. In the third chapter there is offered an interesting analysis of the economic factors in the Saar struggle. The value and volume of the coal, iron, steel, and other industries are outlined, and the general trade relations of the Basin explained. The conclusion reached in this connection is interesting: "All economic factors call for coöperation between France, Germany and the Saar. The future alone will show whether the political situation will allow it to materialize." (P. 85).

The labor and social relations of the Saar are discussed in the fourth chapter, which is one of the most interesting in the book. Particularly valuable is the description of the trade unions and the employment situation, especially since material on this aspect of the situation is not always readily available in limited libraries. Chapter Five contains an excellent survey of the present political situation, with sections on the anti-French movement, the respective positions of Germany and France, and the dilemma of the Roman Catholics. Included also is a critique of the work of the Governing Commission. While fully realizing the difficulties under which the commission has had to function, Dr. Florinsky nevertheless believes it to have shown a lack of understanding of both psychological and economic factors in the problem.

The final chapter is entitled "The Plebiscite and the Outlook." The author believes that despite the fact that reunion with Germany may mean serious trouble for "perhaps thousands and thousands of honorable and honest people," it nevertheless is "unquestionable" that such reunion "will remove from the map of Europe one of its danger spots and therefore smooth the thorny path that may lead to international coöperation." (Pp. 178-179). This concluding section also concerns itself with the problems that might arise under each possible result of the plebiscite scheduled for January, 1935: if the people should vote for a retention of the *status quo*, in case of a mixed vote in which some of the districts might vote one way and some another, and if the voting should be entirely in favor of a return to Germany (and this is regarded as the most likely result). "The celebrated dilemma of King Solomon," says Dr. Florinsky, "was mere child's play when compared with the one the League may have to face." Only this seems certain: "The apostles of National Socialism from Berlin, the doctrinaires of the Versailles Treaty from Paris, and the high priests of the glittering but often sterile abstractions of international law from Geneva, all of them acting in the name of the highest principles, are nevertheless competing, unwittingly, to destroy the secular peace of the Saar mining villages." And it is only in the magnificent traditions which the generations of Saar miners have behind them and in their "rare and noble qualities," that "there lies the hope for a better future." (P. 186).

Columbia University

WALTER CONSUELO LANGSAM

Constitutional History of England. By George Burton Adams, revised by Robert L. Schuyler. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1934. Pp. xv, 600. \$3.00.

The first eighteen chapters of this book are as Professor Adams first published them thirteen years ago. Professor Schuyler has made a few changes in Chapter XIX and Chapter XX and has added three new chapters, one on the Irish Free State, one on the post-war period, and one on the growth of administration. He contributes also a general bibliographical note in which he calls attention to a few of the important contributions which have been made to the literature of the subject since 1921.

Students of English constitutional history are already well acquainted with the first edition of this admirable book, a model of sound scholarship and clear, vigorous prose writing. Many of them will probably applaud Professor Schuyler's decision to make virtually no changes in the original text, though a good many important additions to our knowledge of the subject have been made since Professor Adams wrote. It would be difficult, particularly in the brilliant chapters on medieval England, to alter the contents without marring the style. But leaving all such considerations aside we should, I think, in this place approach this book and other books of the same sort from the point of view of its usefulness to the secondary-school teacher. Evidently it is offered by the publishers as a textbook. Is it a good textbook for school use?

Unfortunately, English history has of late been dropping out of fashion in the schools. This is notably true in the public schools. In those private schools whose main business is college preparatory work, it is the least popular of all the fields of history offered by the College Entrance Examination Board. And what English history is still taught in the schools is not specifically constitutional history but rather a broader view of the development of English civilization in all its important aspects. It would be unfair to criticize Professor Adams for not doing what he never intended to do, but certainly he keeps very rigidly to the topic of the development of political institutions. There is a

little of law, a very little of religion, virtually nothing at all of economic or social or cultural development. The industrial revolution, for example, is disposed of in a single page—not so much space as is given to the statute *De donis conditionalibus*. It is at least arguable that even constitutional history ought not to be written this way, that even political institutions are so much the product of the civilization from which they emerge that their real significance is lost without their background. But in any case, the kind of English history in demand is not the kind to be found in this book. Secondary-school teachers will find it useful for brushing up their own knowledge of constitutional history, always remembering that it needs to be supplemented at many points by more recent studies; and they may wisely place it in the hands of advanced students who have already some acquaintance with the facts of English history. But as a textbook for school use, it will never do.

In the colleges and universities, English history still commends some of the attention which it deserves, but here again the drift is away from the old-fashioned course in constitutional history towards the broader view. As a freshman course, where it usually appears in the college curriculum, it is generally designed to serve as an introduction to the study, not only of government and law but also of economics and literature. And one college teacher, at least, believes this to be one of its most important functions. When we realize how much of our contemporary civilization is English in origin and how much our understanding of contemporary problems is dependent upon some knowledge of the roots from which they sprang, we must conclude that a nodding acquaintance at least with English history, in the broadest possible sense of the term, is fundamental. But we need textbooks written from another point of view than this one. And yet we need to have them written with Professor Adams' enthusiasm for his subject, with his careful scholarship, with his unerring sense for the significant facts, with his sure mastery of pure, vigorous English prose. Perhaps after all, the contents of a book count for less in education than the qualities of mind and heart that go into the making of it. There are those who maintain that more of vital inspiration is to be gained by walking along a narrow path with men like George Burton Adams than in roaming the wide world with the lesser men.

University of Pennsylvania

CONYERS READ

Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences. By Isaiah Bowman, Pp. 227. Illustrated. *Geography in the Schools of Europe.* By Rose B. Clark. Pp. 155. Bound in one volume. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.

Isaiah Bowman is undoubtedly the most widely experienced scholar among American geographers. He has taught, he has done geographic field work, written small special studies, monographs, and comprehensive treatises. He has edited an excellent journal. For nineteen years he has been an administrator, Director of the American Geographical Society, and he has been frequently in the service of the government; most conspicuously when in charge of the American staff of 150 members preparing information for the Paris Peace Conference of 1919-20 and serving with the American delegation in Paris. A thoughtful book by him is therefore a matter of interest to many.

The book sets out to show what contribution geography can make "to the so-called social sciences." The arrangement of the material is somewhat unexpected. The seven chapters are: By Way of Definition, 39 pages; Measurement in Geography, 24; Population and Land Studies, 34; Technique in Geographical Analysis, 46; Regional Geography, 56; Economic and Political Bearings, 16; Conclusions, 13.

The author does not formally define geography in a few sharp words, as for a dictionary, but scores of references show clearly that he agrees with his late master, William Morris Davis, that geography is a study of *relationships* between the earth and its inhabitants, rather than the more insipid, and much less useful, European definition which characterizes geography as "the distribution of things."

"This world is made up of regions and each region has its own personality, its own set of significant conditions. A Tibetan yak driver, an Egyptian fellah, an Uros fisherman, an Argentine hacendado, a Kansas farmer, a Peace River pioneer—each lives in a world whose conditions and outlook are almost completely unlike the others. To apprehend those earth qualities, conditions, outlines, measured components, and interactions that enable us to look understandingly at man in relation to the pervasive elements of his complex regional environment—these are the most distinctive, as they are the culminating purposes of geographical research and education on the technical side." (p. 4)

"Geographic science attempts to help recognize and trace the action of some of the recurrent social and economic elements or forces that have physical relationships." (p. 33)

"[Geography] aims to provide that geographical point of view, that selection of 'essential facts,' as Brunhes has called them, without which a study of mankind is unrelated to the earth. It assumes that no study of man is realistic that treats humanity as if it lived suspended in empty space instead of treading a world of minerals, forests, climates, and soils quite unevenly distributed and highly variable in availability, size, and relationship." (pp. 33-34)

"The practical value of most geographical analyses is the more intelligent use of the earth, whether for food getting or for transport, enjoyment, or comfort." (p. 73)

"If [Geography] merely recombined data from other sciences it would be a card catalog, not a science. It goes much further since its main purpose is regional analysis and, if possible, correlation: the identification of interrelations, the way in which the forces of environment 'hunt in packs' and produce group effects. It is not interested in rainfall merely, or in wet-bulb thermometrical readings, or in degree of leaching of nutriment from grass by rainfall after the grass has cured on the stalk. When put together, to form a statement of resources and limiting conditions as complete as possible, some elements of the environment are found to be dominant, that is to say, they produce effects upon mankind, directly or indirectly, that outweigh the effects of other elements. Some may prefer the word 'predominant'." (pp. 146-147)

"The grouping of regional qualities discernible in field data and their expression on a map are stages in a geographical synthesis.

"Such a synthesis helps a given social group to understand its position, its limitations, and its possibilities. It also helps government to function intelligently. For government has generally to deal with regions in the concrete." (p. 148)

Apparently Dr. Bowman is a bit sensitive over the accusation that geographers believe in geographic *determinism*. Therefore he reiterates that there is no such thing. He points out that while many facts of the environment are fixed, man can improve or injure some earth resources, and that man's ability to use them varies with every new discovery. He further points out that while a part of the environment responds to definite physical "laws," man himself, especially in his groups, is an unpredictable variable. Earth facts do not *determine* him but they *condition* him, and the geographer may help to bring about a more effective relationship between man and environment.

"In reaching for the stars it is well not to lose sight of the solid earth under our

feet. The 'horrible examples' of confused thinking in geography affect chiefly the human side of the subject where hurried attempts to frame and apply new social philosophies have led many teachers of the social sciences to employ a few geographical facts and easy generalizations with shocking inaccuracy and superficiality." (p. 227)

The book is illustrated by a number of very instructive maps and pictures, and its many references to the work of others make it to an unusual degree a review of recent geographic literature, especially of the monographic variety.

It will be a disappointment to many readers that there is not a more definite discussion of, or reference to, the social sciences, one by one, as such, in their relation to geography. The book is much more predominantly geographic than one would expect from its title, but certainly it may be called an attack on the watertight-compartment concept of subjects.

Miss Clark's book, *Geography in the Schools of Europe*, in relation to a program of geographic instruction in America, is one that should interest almost every elementary teacher who is still mentally alive.

The scope of its rich content is indicated by the chapter headings:

1. A Background for the Study
2. The Place of Geography in the Curriculum of the Different Countries
3. The Declared Objectives of Geographical Instruction
4. The Plan of Teaching
5. The Content Covered in the Course of Study
6. Textbooks, Atlases, and Other Equipment
7. The Training of Teachers of Geography
8. What We Can Learn from Europe

Columbia University

J. RUSSELL SMITH

Long Remember. By MacKinlay Kantor. New York: Coward-McCann, 1934. Pp. 411. \$2.50.

So Red the Rose. By Stark Young. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. Pp. 431. \$2.50.

The great Civil War of the 60's has long been, and still continues to be, popular material not merely for the historian, in his new interpretation of its prolific sources, but for the poet and the novelist as well. It is natural that this should be true, for the great struggle was essentially dramatic, replete with the detail of great heroism, gallant self-sacrifice, and profound tragedy. Indeed, many literary reputations, among them those of Winston Churchill, Ellen Glasgow, Stephen Crane and Stephen Vincent Benet, were largely created because of their skillful appreciation of the artistic possibilities of such material.

In these two significant contributions to such literature, we have portrayed widely contrasting situations, Mr. Young's story being a treatment of wartime Mississippi and the reaction of the penetration of Federal armies into the southwest upon the attractive planter folk of that region; while in Mr. Kantor's vivid narrative, one gains some idea of the impact of great armies upon the sleepy village of Gettysburg during that intense three-day campaign. They are both essentially modern in their intellectual attitude toward the horrors of war, though with a difference. Mr. Young writes with a gentle and sorrowful note, while Mr. Kantor's picture almost roars with the fury and pain of that terrific July; in the former we feel a reminiscent regret at the passage of so much that

was pleasant in the South; while in the latter, the events seem almost to have occurred yesterday. Each seems to have used the sources with the utmost care, and may be termed, in spirit, historically accurate.

So *Red the Rose* tells the story of Edward McGehee, young student at Colonel William Tecumseh Sherman's Louisiana Seminary and son of one of the richest planters in Mississippi. Though but eighteen, he enlists at almost the beginning of the war, and fell in the battle of Shiloh; his parents being refused access to the battlefield, old William Veal, the mulatto butler, stole out at night and located Edward by the fineness of his hair. The armies advance into the very neighborhood of the plantation, and soon there are no negroes to work the fields, and no men left to drive away the camp followers who carry off or destroy most of the movable property. Very charming are the details of southern family life which Mr. Young is able to place in his narrative: their kindness, hospitality, loyalty to one another, and their whimsical sense of humor, are displayed with a sympathy and charm which add materially to the book as a piece of good writing. One feels that Mr. Young knows his southerners first hand. Yet, despite the occasional visitations of deep tragedy and misfortune of all kinds to the Bedfords, the McGehees and the others, one does not feel the menacing reality of the great struggle as in Mr. Kantor's more vivid narrative.

In *Long Remember*, young Daniel Bale returns to his ancestral home near Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, after a long and adventurous experience in the West. The date was momentous, it being June of 1863. The occasion of his return was the death of his nearest relative, his grandfather. Almost immediately two important events occur; Dan falls in love with the beautiful young wife of Captain Fanning, a neighbor absent with the Union forces, and the great invasion of Lee concentrates on the little village. Mrs. Fanning returns Daniel's love for her, but the affair ends abruptly when the Captain is borne, dangerously wounded, to his own home. Daniel, a pronounced opponent of war, probably because he has come too frequently in contact with violent death on the western plains, ministers to the wounded who crowd his house and yard and aids Dr. Duffey, the valiant village physician, in many a deed of mercy. Most interesting in this novel is the manner in which the drama of war sweeps up everyone and everything in its dreadful rush. The peaceful farm country becomes the camp ground of innumerable armed men; houses are irretrievably wrecked; farm animals flee in terror from the perpetual roar and shrieking of the guns; every available shelter becomes a hospital for Union and Confederate alike. It destroys, obliterates, sickens all life in the region.

Mr. Kantor has very successfully used the historical occurrences of that three day period and interlaced with it known facts and possible incidents told from the standpoint of the civilian onlookers. It differs from the other novel mainly in its intensity, its closeness to the events; though not participants in the battle, for the most part, the main characters are still implicated in it, are whirled along by the fury of it, and their lives are forever changed by the rapid whirlwind action.

It would be hard to find, in or outside purely historical narrative, an account of stirring events which so effectively satisfies the demands we make of history, especially that of convincing fidelity to detail and of vividness in narration. Mr. Young, on his part, deserves great commendation for his successful portrayal of a vanished aristocratic society; he has undoubtedly done this as well as has any novelist.

Adelphi College

COURTNEY R. HALL

Among the Current Magazines

GERTRUDE R. B. RICHARDS

Hickok, Guy C. "My Children See America," *Scribner's*, XCVI (November, 1934), 306-309.

Certain American customs are seen by returning Americans after a fifteen year exile in France.

O'Moran, M. "Itinerant," *Scribner's*, XCVI (November, 1934), 312-316.

The wandering laboring families of the Pacific Coast present a problem that is new and peculiarly American.

Grattan, C. Hartley. "Red Opinion in the United States," *Scribner's*, XCVI (November, 1934), 299-305.

There is no united group of Communists in America but rather hostile elements which battle each other more fiercely than they do the capitalists.

Puleston, Captain W. D. "Mahan, Naval Philosopher," *Scribner's* XCVI (November, 1934), 294-298.

In replying to Louis Hacker's biography of Admiral Mahan which presented him in the light of radical thought, Captain Puleston considers him from the point of view of naval department.

Aikman, Duncan and Jones, Hawley. "The Bogey of Regimentation," *Harpers*, CLXIX (November, 1934), 641-650.

The present efforts at regimentation are in many ways a continuation of the Coolidge policy of standardization.

Gunther, John. "Policy by Murder," *Harpers*, CLXIX (November, 1934), 651-662.

The Dollfuss Tragedy is described by one who was in Vienna at the time, and as a newspaper correspondent, witnessed many of the events he describes here.

Swing, Raymond Graham. "How Britain Revived," *Harpers*, CLXIX (November, 1934), 674-683.

While London is not typical of Great Britain as a whole, she is today the most prosperous metropolis in the world, and her recovery is due to a combination of good fortune and a series of drastic national actions which demonstrate how a democracy can cooperate with destiny in times of danger.

Adamic, Louis. "Thirty Million New Americans," *Harpers*, CLXIX (November, 1934), 684-694.

The American born children of emigrants afford a special problem in social adjustment.

Duggan, Stephen. "Russia After Eight Years," *Harpers*, CLXIX (November, 1934), 695-706.

The old culture in practically every aspect has been scrapped by the Russians who now worship the machine, both as a symbol and as a force.

Seldes, George. "The Poisoned Spring of World News," *Harpers*, CLXIX (November, 1934), 719-731.

"The dictators make the news by controlling the main sources and the people accept, without investigation, the oft-times contradictory statements of the press."

Chamberlin, William Henry. "Farewell to Russia," *Atlantic*, CLIV (November, 1934), 564-573.

On the eve of his departure from Russia after ten years of journalistic service there, Mr. Chamberlin reviews the changes that have transpired under his observation.

Sokolsky, George. "Labor's Broken Front," *Atlantic*, CLIV (November, 1934), 627-637.

With all the cards stacked in its favor, organized labor has not won a single major strike since the NIRA went into effect.

O'Donnell, George Marion. "Portrait of a Southern Planter," *The American Review*, III (October, 1934).

Huntington Plantation in Mississippi between the years 1920 and 1932 was menaced by the industrialism of the East, and by the dominance of the government over industrialism. It typifies the agricultural conditions in the lower Mississippi Valley.

Hoffman, Ross J. S. "Liberty and Authority," *The American Review*, III (October, 1934).

Only through real authority can there be the security which the political situation no less than the economic both desire and need.

Villard, Oswald Garrison. "The Sad Tale of Ramsay Mac," *The American Mercury*, XXXIII (November, 1934), 323-328.

The dreadful acid of office-holding has steadily corroded the nature of the Premier who is now little but a figurehead.

Rorty, James. "It Looks Like War," *The Nation*, CXXXIX (November 21, 1934), 593-595.

The first of a series of articles dealing with contemporary American realities.

Corey, Herbert. "The Myth of Slum Clearance," *The New Outlook*, CLXV (November, 1934), 10-14.

The effort of the government to do away with slums is and must remain ineffective so long as land is salable at the present value and taxes are at their present rate.

Milliken, Seymour J. "\$200 a Month at Sixty," *The Forum*, XCII (December, 1934), 326-329.

A Californian analyses and evaluates the Townsend Pension Plan.

Current Publications Received

ECONOMICS

- Allen, L. W. *Limited Capitalism. The Road to Unlimited Prosperity.* New York: Strand Publishers, 1934. Pp. 70. \$1.00.
- Bossom, Alfred C. *Building To The Skies.* New York: Studio Publications, 1934. Pp. 152. \$4.50. Illus.
- Cole, G. D. H. *Studies in World Economics.* London: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. vii, 285. \$4.75.
- Dorfman, Joseph. *Thorstein Veblen and His America.* New York: Viking Press, 1934. Pp. 556. \$3.75.
- Leven, Maurice; Moulton, Harold G.; and Warburton, Clark. *America's Capacity to Consume.* Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1934. Pp. xi, 272. \$3.00.
- National Industrial Conference Board. *The Taxation of Banks.* New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1934. Pp. x, 148. \$2.50.
- Nourse, Edwin G. and Associates. *America's Capacity to Produce.* Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1934. \$3.50.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Andrews, Charles M. *The Colonial Period of American History. The Settlements. I.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1934. Pp. xiv, 551. \$4.00.
- Desmond, Alice Curtis. *South American Adventures.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. 284. \$2.50.
- Hulbert, Archer Butler, ed. *The Call of The Columbia: Iron Men and Saint Take The Oregon Trail. Overland to the Pacific, Vol. IV.* Denver: The Stewart Commission of Colorado College and Denver Public Library, 1934. Pp. xvii, 316. \$5.00. Maps and illus.
- Lounsbury, Ralph Greenlee. *The British Fishery at Newfoundland 1634-1763.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1934. Pp. viii, 398. \$4.00.
- Milton, George Fort. *The Eve of Conflict. Stephen A. Douglas and The Needless War.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. xiii, 608. \$5.00.
- Nerval, Gaston. *Autopsy of the Monroe Doctrine.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xi, 357. \$3.50.
- Walsh, James J. *American Jesuits.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. ix, 336. \$2.50.
- Wharton, Don, ed. *The Roosevelt Omnibus.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1934. Pp. ix, 174, v. \$3.50. Illus.
- Wisn, Joseph E. *The Cuban Crisis As Reflected in The New York Press, 1895-1898.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1934. Pp. 477. \$4.50.

EUROPEAN AND WORLD HISTORY

- Brinton, Crane. *A Decade of Revolution 1789-1799. The Rise of Modern Europe.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1934. Pp. x, 330. \$3.75.
- Bunyan, James and Fisher, H. S. *The Bolshevik Revolution 1917-1918. (Hoover War Library Publications No. 3).* Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1934. Pp. xii, 735. \$6.00.
- de Haas, Jacob. *Palestine, the Last Two Thousand Years.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xxvii, 523. \$3.50.

- Florinsky, Michael T. *The Saar Struggle*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xiv, 191. \$2.00.
- Hall, Henry L. *Australia and England. A Study in Imperial Relations*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1934. Pp. xii, 320.
- Lucas, Henry S. *The Renaissance and the Reformation*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1934. Pp. xviii, 765. \$4.00.
- Pickthorn, Kenneth. *Early Tudor Government. Henry VII*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. ix, 192. \$3.25.
- Pickthorn, Kenneth. *Early Tudor Government. Henry VIII*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xiv, 564. \$7.00.
- Thorndike, Lynn. *A History of Magic and Experimental Science. The Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries. Vols. III and IV*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1934. Pp. xxvi, 827; xviii, 767. \$10.00 for both vols.

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- Beaglehole, J. C. *The Exploration of the Pacific. (The Pioneer Histories Series.)* New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xv, 411. \$5.00.
- Harley, John Eugene. *Documentary Textbook on International Relations. University of Southern California. (School of Research Series Number Three, Social Science Series Number Six.)* Los Angeles: Suttonhouse, 1934. Pp. xxvii, 848.

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- Cole, G. D. H. *What Marx Really Meant*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1934. Pp. 309, vi. \$2.00.
- Commons, John R. *Myself*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. vii, 201. \$3.00.
- Corwin, Edward S. *The Twilight of The Supreme Court. A History of Our Constitutional Theory*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1934. Pp. xxvii, 237. \$2.50.
- Fraenkel, Osmond K. and Lewis, Clarence M., ed. *The Curse of Bigness. Miscellaneous Papers of Justice Brandeis*. New York: Viking Press, 1934. Pp. ix, 339. \$3.50.
- Merriam, Charles E. *Political Power*. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill, 1934. Pp. vii, 331. \$3.00.
- Saenz, Lic. Aaron. *Informe Presidencial y Memoria del Departamento del Distrito Federal. Mexico*, 1934. Pp. xvi, 192.
- Schmeckebier, Laurence F. *New Federal Organizations. An Outline of Their Structure and Functions*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1934. Pp. ix, 199. \$1.50.

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- Grimes, John Maurice. *Institutional Care of Mental Patients in the United States*. Chicago: Published by author, 1934. Pp. xv, 138.
- Radin, Paul. *The Story of The American Indian*. New York: Liveright Publishing Corp., 1934. Pp. xiv, 383. \$2.50. Illus.
- Rogers, Agnes and Allen, Frederick Lewis. *Metropolis. An American City in Photographs*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1934. Pp. 215. \$3.00.
- Weatherford, Willis D. and Johnson, Charles S. *Race Relations. Adjustment of White, and Negroes in the United States*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. x, 590. \$3.20.

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- Tugwell, Rexford G. and Keiperling, Leon H., ed. *Redirecting Education*. Vol. I, *The United States*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1934. Pp. ix, 273. \$3.00.

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- Vincent, John Martin. *Aids to Historical Research*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1934. Pp. vii, 173.

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- Bush, Maybell G. and Waddell, John F. *How We Have Conquered Distance*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Pp. xiii, 290. 96c.
- Coyle, L. S. and Evans, W. P. *Our American Heritage. From Wilderness to Nation*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1934. Pp. xvii, 303. \$1.08.

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- Gray, A. A. *History of California From 1542*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. xiii, 655. \$2.00.
- Harlow, Victor E. *Oklahoma*. Oklahoma City: Harlow Publishing Co., 1934. Pp. xii, 434.

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- Ogburn, William F. (Cooper, Fred G., illus.) *You and Machines*. Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1934. Pp. 55.
- Rockwood, Edith. *A Memorandum on a System of Federal, State, and Local Unemployment Relief*. (1934 Rev.) Washington, D.C.: National League of Women Voters, 1934. Pp. 14 Mimeo. 15c.

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- Lacy, Mary G., ed. *Bibliography on Land Settlement with particular reference to Small Holdings and Subsistence Homesteads*. (United States Department of Agriculture, Miscellaneous Publication No. 172.) Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1934. Pp. iv, 492. 50c.
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- Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. *Proceedings of the Citizens' Conference on School Recovery in Pennsylvania. October 10-11, 1934*. Harrisburg: Department of Public Instruction, 1934. Pp. 54.

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- Hubback, Eva M. and Simon, E. D. *Education for Citizenship*. London: J. Andrew & Co., Ltd., 1934. Pp. 28. 6d.
- Summer School, Teachers College, Columbia University. *Report of a Conference on Supervised Correspondence Study, August, 1934*. Scranton: International Textbook Co., 1934. Pp. 66. 25c.

WORKBOOKS AND SYLLABI

- Hegland, Edwina Kenney and Hegland, Sheridan. *The Open Door. A Library Reference Work Book*. Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1934. Pp. 36. 35c.
- Wirth, Fremont P. and Crow, Mary Neely. *A Workbook for Studying the History of American Progress*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934. Pp. 140. 44c.

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- King-Hall, Stephen and Boswell, K. C. *Tracing History Backwards. Book One. The Facts*. London: Evans Bros., Ltd. Pp. 95. 1/6.
- King-Hall, Stephen and Boswell, K. C. *Tracing History Backwards. Book Two. Some Problems*. London: Evans Bros., Ltd. Pp. 96. 1/6.

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